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ABSTRACT

Teacher evaluation remains a controversial and disruptive area. The problems arise from the way evaluations are carried out. In many cases the evaluation system used is the problem. This book discusses teacher evaluation by providing characteristics separating effective and less effective systems. It presents eight commonalities identified in effective evaluation programs. In building a system, three characteristics are desirable: an appropriate attitude toward evaluation, an evaluation model complementary to the desired purpose, and separation of administrative and supervisory behavior. Also, an effective system should (1) set goals (presented are three approaches: management by objectives, performance objectives, and practical goal setting), (2) focus narrowly on teaching, (3) improve classroom observation skills, and (4) use additional sources of data (peer evaluation, student performance, parent evaluation, student evaluation, and self evaluation are discussed). After building an evaluation system, a training program should be designed that addresses the skills needed. Recommended training focuses on the teaching-learning process and on the enhancement of teacher-supervisor relationships. Included is an appendix giving an example of an evaluation system reflecting the commonalities of successful systems. (MD)

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Successful Teacher Evaluation

Thomas L. McGreal

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Successful Teacher Evaluation

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Foreword

Few issues in education are more explosive than the evaluation of teachers and teaching. Although evaluators agree that the major general purpose of teacher evaluation is to maintain and improve the quality of instruction, it nevertheless remains an emotional, controversial, and disruptive issue. Yet there are districts who have found or created successful teacher evaluation systems. The premise contained in this book, therefore, is that the difficulties arise not so much from the concept of evaluation as from the way evaluation is carried out.

Evaluators face problems of identifying, providing outlets for, and creating means for discovering the potentialities of their staff members. Their role is seen as a constructive, consultative, and helpful one that is possible only in an atmosphere of mutual confidence and freedom from suspicion. Author McGreal considers teacher evaluation not only in terms of its usefulness with respect to employment decisions, but as a tool for improving instruction as well. One way that can be done, he says, is by facilitating staff members' use of the most recent research on teaching and learning.

School districts will welcome the techniques and procedures described in *Successful Teacher Evaluation*. It is our hope that this book will provide the motivation to all districts to ensure that their evaluation methods are enlightened and ultimately create better learning experiences for their students.

LAWRENCE S. FINKEL
President, 1983–84
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

Introduction

There seems little need to offer an extensive justification for the existence of teacher evaluation. Among educators it is, in fact, one of the few areas in which there is agreement. While there is often some argument at the local level about the espoused versus the "real" purpose of evaluation, educators overall are in accord regarding its general purpose: *to safeguard and improve the quality of instruction received by students* (Bolton, 1973). Bolton lists the following specific functions of teacher evaluation as the means for fulfilling this major purpose:

1. To improve teaching through the identification of ways to change teaching systems, teaching environments, or teaching behaviors
2. To supply information that will lead to the modification of assignments, such as placements in other positions, promotions, and terminations
3. To protect students from incompetence, and teachers from unprofessional administrators
4. To reward superior performance
5. To validate the school system's teacher selection process
6. To provide a basis for teachers' career planning and professional development.

If all this agreement exists, why does teacher evaluation remain an extraordinarily controversial and disruptive influence within local school settings? In most instances the difficulties arise not with the concept or the general purposes, but from the way evaluation is carried out. Actual evaluation is most often directed by the requirements of the evaluation system. And herein lies trouble, *because in many cases the system is the problem.*

This is not surprising. Certainly the major difficulties associated with developing effective teacher evaluation systems are well-documented.

They include such things as poor teacher-supervisor attitudes toward evaluation (Wagoner and O'Hanlon, 1968), the difficulties in separating formative and summative evaluation (Raths, 1982), inadequate measurement devices (Popham, 1981), lack of reliable and consistent teaching criteria (Travers, 1981), the lack of reliable data collection techniques (Scriven, 1981), the fallibility of standard feedback mechanisms (McKeachie, 1976), and the general lack of training of teachers and supervisors in the evaluation process (McGreal, 1980). If time is spent reviewing the available literature, developing effective teacher evaluation systems seems a hopeless task. Regardless of these difficulties, most regular school systems *must* have a functioning evaluation system. Whether the mandate is legislative, contractual, political, or professional, the average school must be able to point to some systematic procedure to monitor the performance of its employees. The question for school districts is this: given the fact that it is unlikely that there exists now or in the near future any totally reliable teacher evaluation system, what can be done to develop the most realistic and effective local system possible? It is the purpose of this book to attempt to answer that question.

Recently, numerous publications have been intent on selling particular evaluation models (Lewis, 1973; Manatt, 1976; Redfern, 1980; Iwanicki, 1981). While these and other models are potentially sound and functional, it would be inappropriate to "buy" a particular model and attempt to put it in place in a local setting without taking into account local contextual factors. Even though the above-mentioned authors may not have had the wholesale adoption of their particular system in mind when they proposed it, this is a disturbingly frequent occurrence. (See Iwanicki, 1981, p. 206 for a more complete discussion of the pitfalls of wholesale adoption of a system.)

This book is designed to address the needs of those school districts, schools, or professional educators who, rather than buying into a packaged model, would prefer a framework for looking at their existing evaluation systems and who want direction in determining possible appropriate alterations or options. Even though the ingredients for a particular approach are imbedded in the following sections, it is not my intent to sell a particular model. Rather, my goal is to provide a perspective on the characteristics that seem to separate effective from less effective systems.

Throughout the book reference will be made to "effective" or "successful" evaluation systems. It is important that some definition be provided regarding the use of these or similar terms. The complexity of the measurement problems prevents any definition of success or effectiveness at an empirical level. The relationship between changes in an evaluation system or changes in an individual supervisor's behavior to

such measurable outcomes as student achievement is far too confounding. We must base such definitions on the assessment of attitudes, beliefs, and feelings as expressed by the teachers and supervisors involved in a system. This is neither inappropriate nor unreliable. Judgments made on the basis of direct involvement by trained, experienced professionals constitute a valuable and reliable source of data (Stake, 1970; Glass, 1974). Consequently, as I discuss characteristics or commonalities of effective systems, my definition of effectiveness in making that determination is based on the collective opinions of *all* the people involved in those systems.

It seems clear that there are two issues that a school district must address if it is to increase the effectiveness of its teacher evaluation system:

1. It must look seriously at the evaluation system that now exists, particularly with regard to its purposes, procedures, processes, and instrumentation. It is imperative that congruence exists between the things a district wants its system to be and to do and those things that a system requires of the people involved.

2. The district must provide *all* the members of the school with appropriate training and guided practice in the skills and knowledge necessary to implement and effectively maintain the system.

Both of these requirements tend to focus on the procedural side of evaluation. This concern for the system and for its procedures and processes is not intended to deny the importance of the individual relationship between a supervisor and a teacher. Experience shows that a positive, supportive relationship between a knowledgeable supervisor and a committed teacher is still the most effective way to produce improved instruction. This type of relationship can, in many cases, supercede an inadequate system. Unfortunately, the relationships in the average school setting are not always as positive as desired. In many instances the breakdown of these relations is fostered by the unrealistic and impractical demands of systems past and present. It is increasingly apparent that all participants must not only receive adequate training, they must also be provided with *a system* that supports and enhances supervisory-teacher relationships.

The collection of attitudes and feelings about evaluation systems that form the basis for this book grew naturally from my direct involvement over the last eight years with nearly 300 school districts. In the process of encouraging and monitoring the efforts of these districts to develop teacher evaluation systems that reflected their unique needs and interests, it became clear that a set of commonalities were frequently present in those systems that were ultimately viewed by their staffs as effective. It is

this set of commonalities that are the core of this book.

Section I discusses the first three commonalities of effective evaluation systems. These commonalities are grouped together since they are all concerned with the general theme of attitude and philosophy regarding the viewing of teacher evaluation in a realistic and practical manner. They are presented first because they address issues, concepts, and general information about alternative evaluation models that must be dealt with before the more specific commonalities of successful evaluation systems can be discussed.

Section II presents four commonalities that deal with more specific and focused ingredients of effective teacher evaluation systems. Section III presents the last of the commonalities as well as a short discussion of implementation strategies that have been effectively used by school districts in developing new evaluation systems.

The book is organized around the eight commonalities. It should be noted that the length of discussion following each commonality will vary considerably. Neither the length of the discussion nor the ordering of the commonalities should be construed as indicating increased importance. Each of the eight could stand independently, and all have important implications for school districts whether taken alone or as a group. The length of discussion is related only to the amount of information needed to clearly explain the meaning and the use of the commonality. Also, it is not necessary that all eight commonalities be present before a system can be judged effective or potentially effective. Indeed, only a handful of schools have evaluation systems that reflect all eight. These commonalities can be and have been best used to provide a perspective, an awareness of alternatives, and if need be, a set of directions to follow. The reader should analyze the concepts and ideas of the commonalities in view of local conditions, interests, and concerns. While the definitive evaluation system may never be developed, this book does reflect a set of best practices that can increase significantly the chances of developing realistic and effective teacher evaluation systems at the local level. Everything in this book is based on either sound research or on the fact that it is already working effectively in schools. *Believe it! Systems can be developed that make a difference.*

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Section I.

The Framework for Building a Teacher Evaluation System

COMMONALITY 1:

An Appropriate Attitude Toward Evaluation

As Bolton (1973) suggests, there are multiple purposes for evaluation that can and need to be served. These purposes generally are divided into two major areas: evaluation for making personnel decisions or weeding out the "bad teachers" (summative evaluation), and evaluation for faculty development (formative evaluation).

Traditionally, local school systems have emphasized the accountability or summative function of teacher evaluation. This traditional view has increasingly come into conflict with the instructional improvement orientation being encouraged and supported by such factors as the expanding number of tenured teachers, the increasing professionalism of teacher–administrator groups, and the increased visibility of growth oriented supervisory models such as clinical supervision. Trying to develop an evaluation system that walks the line between these two attitudes is extremely difficult, if not impossible. Those districts whose evaluation systems are viewed most positively have clearly chosen to operate from a single dominant attitude and have used that to guide their efforts. This attitude has invariably been to construct or revise the teacher evaluation system around the concept of improving classroom instruction.

As Iwanicki (1981) and Zimmerer and Stroh (1974) have noted, the leadership at the top of an organization must be committed to and support the aims and directions of an evaluation system before it can be expected to succeed. Consequently, a first step in developing an effective evaluation system is the need for producing a convincing argument for an instructional improvement model.

While it is virtually impossible to address summative and formative evaluation equally (Howsam, 1963), it also must be clear that a system cannot be built that addresses only formative evaluation. Throughout the process of selling an appropriate attitude toward evaluation, the point

must be made that a district's or a supervisor's responsibility for ensuring competence is not being abrogated. In most instances, accountability oriented systems have emerged from extraordinary naiveté on the part of citizens, school boards, and top administrators about what is required in an evaluation system in order to safeguard the district's interests in the case of a potential dismissal situation. Unfortunately, this preoccupation with trying to build a system that will enable a school to separate the "good" teachers from the "bad" and then provide such good "hard" data that a challenged dismissal case will be successful, has done as much as anything to break down the effectiveness of teacher evaluation. Still, there is no denying that the accountability responsibility is real and important. The point, however, is that the process should be looked at realistically.

The ultimate outcome of an evaluation system based on a summative attitude is presumably that a decision can be made to dismiss a teacher. While there are obviously a number of grounds that can legally serve as the basis for a decision to terminate (see Beckman, 1981 for an explication of the various grounds for dismissal), the major reason involving the teacher evaluation system deals with the issue of incompetence. Based on a number of reviews of teacher dismissal cases, it seems reasonable to assume that from a legal perspective local evaluation systems should be primarily concerned with providing safeguards for the protection of the rights of all involved. There is no legal suggestion as to what the major purpose of evaluation should be, what data must be collected, what criteria should be used, or what limits should be set on the level of teacher involvement. Obviously, it would be to the district's advantage to be sure that local evaluation procedures do not violate due process safeguards. But, it should be made clear that evaluation systems can provide these protections and still be built with the primary focus on the improvement of instruction. An excellent guide for reviewing procedural safeguards while still meeting evaluation responsibilities is provided by Strike and Bull (1981). Their Bill of Rights for Teacher Evaluation has important implications for local districts as they attempt to develop an appropriate attitude toward building an evaluation program.

A Bill of Rights for Teacher Evaluation

Rights of Educational Institutions:

(1) Educational institutions have the right to exercise supervision and to make personnel decisions intended to improve the quality of the education they provide.
(2) Educational institutions have the right to collect information relevant to their supervisory and evaluative roles.
(3) Educational institutions have the right to act on such relevant informa-

tion in the best interest of the students whom they seek to educate.

(4) Educational institutions have the right to the cooperation of the teaching staff in implementing and executing a fair and effective system of evaluation.

Rights of Teachers:

(1) Professional rights
   (a) Teachers have a right to reasonable job security.
   (b) Teachers have a right to a reasonable degree of professional discretion in the performance of their jobs.
   (c) Teachers have a right to reasonable participation in decisions concerning both professional and employment-related aspects of their jobs.

(2) Evidential rights
   (a) Teachers have the right to have decisions made on the basis of evidence.
   (b) Teachers have a right to be evaluated on relevant criteria.
   (c) Teachers have the right not to be evaluated on the basis of hearsay, rumor, or unchecked complaints.

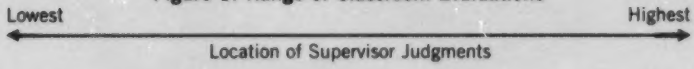
(3) Procedural rights
   (a) Teachers have the right to be evaluated according to general, public, and comprehensible standards.
   (b) Teachers have the right to notice concerning when they will be evaluated.
   (c) Teachers have the right to know the results of their evaluation.
   (d) Teachers have the right to express a reaction to the results of their evaluation in a meaningful way.
   (e) Teachers have the right to a statement of the reasons for any action taken in their cases.
   (f) Teachers have the right to appeal adverse decisions and to have their views considered by a competent and unbiased authority.
   (g) Teachers have the right to orderly and timely evaluation.

(4) Other humanitarian and civil rights
   (a) Teachers have a right to humane evaluation procedures.
   (b) Teachers have the right to have their evaluation kept private and confidential.
   (c) Teachers have the right to evaluation procedures which are not needlessly intrusive into their professional activities.
   (d) Teachers have the right to have their private lives considered irrelevant to their evaluation.
   (e) Teachers have the right to have evaluation not be used coercively to obtain aims external to the legitimate purposes of evaluation.
   (f) Teachers have the right to nondiscriminatory criteria and procedures.
   (g) Teachers have the right not to have evaluation used to sanction the expression of unpopular views.
   (h) Teachers have the right to an overall assessment of their performance that is frank, honest, and consistent (Strike and Bull, 1981, p. 307).

While there are clear directions for protection of rights, there is no requirement that the form and substance—the set of procedures, processes, and instrumentation that direct the attitudes and actions of the participants—be built on an accountability orientation. In one sense, the only requirements that a local evaluation system need to meet to fulfill its accountability function is that the system does in fact exist and that it is applied fairly and consistently to all. At the point where a decision has been made to put a teacher on notice (a statement of intent to pursue dismissal unless remediation occurs on a number of stated deficiencies), the due process protections come into play and a series of relatively clear and precise procedures take effect. At this point then, the local evaluation system is then superceded.

An even more practical argument can be made for a growth-oriented attitude if a school district looks realistically at what research and experience suggest about teacher evaluation. Figure 1 depicts the full range of possible evaluations that could be given a teacher. Research suggests that it is virtually impossible for most supervisors—given the time they have available, the amount of training normally provided them, and the diverse nature of the teaching act—to reliably rank teachers on any type of continuum such as the one in Figure 1. At best, the supervisor can only deal with very gross measurements of a teacher's competence in the classroom.

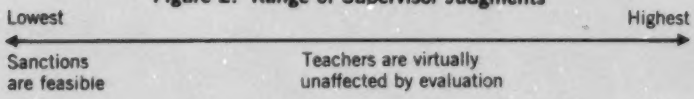
Figure 1. Range of Classroom Evaluations



Does this suggest that no reliable judgments of teacher competence can take place? Certainly it means that there can be no finite judgments, but it does not preclude reliable judgments that actually have some purpose and usefulness. Practically speaking, the majority of all tenured or continuing contract teachers in the United States will be affected only tangentially by the outcomes of teacher evaluation during their careers. The protections provided by judicial precedent, legislative mandate, statutory requirements, and contractual language—when combined with the political implications of dismissal, the strength of teacher associations and unions, and the expensive and time-consuming nature of termination proceedings—make the actual application of sanctions (holding up persons on salary schedules, official notice of remediation, notice of termination, RIF occurring on the basis of evaluations rather than seniority, etc.) very rare. When it does occur, experience dictates that the initial

identification of these persons usually comes about as the result of very gross and informal measures. As an illustration, assume that the governor of a state had the authority to allow all school principals to dismiss one tenured teacher—tenure would be set aside for just one teacher in each building for just one day. It is unlikely that principals would rush to their offices, review their evaluation files, and from that determine who to fire. Every school principal in this country already knows who the worst teacher in the building is right now. How do they know? They just know! They know by coming to work in the same place every day, by collecting all types of informal feedback on their staffs, and by gut-level, intuitive judgments. In many respects, these informal assessments are as reliable as any judgments we have about classroom performance. From a realistic perspective, they are perhaps all the measurement we really need.

Figure 2. Range of Supervisor Judgments



As Figure 2 suggests, only the teacher or group of teachers that fall at the lowest end of the continuum will likely ever be significantly affected by the supervisor's judgments. Since they can be identified by methods other than those built into the evaluation procedure, it seems impractical to build a system around that 2 percent or less of a staff. Hence, the argument to design an evaluation system around the needs of the great majority of the staff gains additional credence.

Based on the work on Wagoner and O'Hanlon (1968), Howsam (1963), and others, it is obvious that teacher feelings toward evaluation are negatively affected by systems that promote such practices as high-supervisor, low-teacher involvement; supervisors making ratings or comparisons between people; and heavy emphasis on administrative criteria. Systems of this nature provide no reliable measures of accountability; provide no better and in most cases less valuable documentation for potential dismissal procedures; and because of the negative attitudes they promote, offer no encouragement for altering classroom instructional behavior.

On the other hand, systems built around attitudes truly directed toward improving instruction, and having procedures, processes, and instrumentation complementary to that attitude, have been shown to significantly increase the likelihood of promoting change in teacher behavior (Zelenak, 1973; Zelenak and Snider, 1974). Since realistic

accountability rests so much on the judgments of the administrators involved in the implementation of the evaluation system, it can be logically assumed that accountability will always accompany instructional improvement oriented systems. On the other hand, experience and research would indicate that no more usable levels of accountability accompany hardnosed, more "objective" systems, while virtually eliminating any chance for changes in instructional behavior by teachers in their classrooms. The acceptance of an appropriate and realistic perspective on the major function of an evaluation system is an absolute necessity for the development of a successful and effective teacher evaluation system. This acceptance by all concerned leads logically to the next commonality.

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COMMONALITY 2:

An Evaluation Model Complementary to the Desired Purpose

The second commonality relates directly to the general attitude toward evaluation just discussed. As used in this book, the evaluation system is the set of required or recommended policies, procedures, processes, and instrumentation that directs the attitudes and actions of the participants. Districts whose evaluation systems are viewed as successful and effective have, in most cases, consciously worked toward developing and maintaining congruence between what they have decided they wanted their system to be and do and the requirements they have made a part of the system.

While this seems like a perfectly logical step in developing any set of procedures, it is remarkable how often this simple step is violated. Approximately two-thirds of the school districts in the United States fail to meet this commonality. As an example, although many districts state in some philosophic preamble that for their school "the primary purpose of evaluation is the improvement of instruction," they then establish procedures and build instruments that promote high-supervisor, low-teacher involvement; encourage or condone infrequent and unfocused observation; and force supervisors to make comparisons between teachers on rating scales based on some standardized criteria. All of these conditions have been found to dramatically hinder attempts at improving teacher performance (Wagoner and O'Hanlon, 1968; Morrison and McIntyre, 1969; Kult, 1973; Wolf, 1973; Oldham, 1974).

In most instances, the ultimate test in determining the effectiveness of an evaluation system is the quality of what occurs at the bottom of the system—the relationship that exists between the supervisor and the teacher when they meet one to one. In developing or redesigning an evaluation system, a school district would do well to start with the contact between supervisor and teacher and build backwards from that point. The

systems that work best impose the fewest possible infringements upon that supervior-teacher relationship. One of the keys to success is the amount of flexibility the supervisor and the teacher have to work on the particular skills, knowledge, techniques, styles, etc., that best fit the school's and the teacher's needs and interests. A school cannot expect to have an effective system by espousing one purpose and then requiring the persons within the system to follow procedures that are noncomplementary to that purpose.

One of the reasons schools often find themselves in a contradiction between purpose and procedures is a general lack of understanding about what procedural options are available. In reviewing the literature as well as common practices in schools, five evaluation models emerge. What follows is a review of each of the models, with comments on their applicability and appropriateness to local situations. As the remaining commonalities are presented in this book, it will become clear that certain adaptations of several of these models have been combined as a means for putting together the most effective systems. This serves to emphasize the importance of knowing the characteristics of available models.

Common Law Models

Logically the first of the models to be discussed should be the type that is used most frequently in schools. The label "common law" is used for such systems since most districts who employ this form of evaluation have done so for so long that they have finally married it by formalizing the procedures. In most instances, no one actually claims credit for its development, choosing to place the responsibility on some long past anonymous committee. Approximately 65 percent of the school districts in the United States operate with some form of common law model. The characteristics of these systems are remarkably similar. Of all the models, the common law probably provides the most divided and the most negative images of teacher evaluation. But, as in all situations, segments of this model may fit the needs of a particular district.

Common law systems are generally traditional in that they rely on simplified definitions of evaluation and on procedures and processes that have remained virtually unchanged for years. Following is a typical opening statement and set of procedures and processes that define the activities of a normal common law system.

GENERAL STATEMENT:
This district believes that each child has unique educational and socio-emotional needs that require quality instruction by all staff members. The district and its professional employees have a responsibility to see that the needs of the students

are being met. One way to meet this responsibility is to have a teacher evaluation procedure that is designed to improve the quality of instruction. In order to be most effective, the procedure should involve both teachers and administrators throughout the process.

PROCEDURES:

(1) All nontenured staff will be evaluated by their principal at least three times during the school year. A professional evaluation form must be submitted after each evaluation. The final report must be on file no later than the end of the first week in March.

(2) All tenured teachers will be evaluated by the principal or his or her designee at least once each school year. A professional evaluation report must be submitted by April 15.

(3) A conference must be held with the staff member following each evaluation. The completed evaluation report must be reviewed with the staff member during the conference. Suggestions for improving areas marked fair or weak should be made along with plans for any follow-up visits. Both parties should then sign the report.

(4) Teachers have the option to write comments about any part of the evaluation in the appropriate space.

It is particularly appropriate to note the reference to instructional improvement as the major purpose of the system. This is very common phraseology. Noteworthy in common law systems is the incongruency between philosophic preambles and the actual required procedures, which is the point made by Commonality 2.

Characteristics of Common Law Models

The above example also illustrates a number of standard characteristics of common law models:

1. *High supervisor-low teacher involvement.* In almost all instances the procedures defined by common law systems require the supervisor to "do something to the teacher," as can be seen in recommendations as to how often evaluation occurs and who does it to whom. In spite of what is said in the philosophy statement, the teacher is a relatively passive participant in the process. The supervisor determines when visits will be conducted; the supervisor completes the required instrumentation; and the supervisor conducts the final evaluative conference.

2. *Evaluation is seen as synonymous with observation.* One of the characteristics of the common law model is an almost exclusive reliance on classroom observation as the method of collecting data about a person's performance. In a sense, statements like "all tenured teachers will be evaluated at least once each school year" translate into "all tenured teachers will be formally visited once each school year." As will be seen in Section II, there are a variety of accepted ways, other than classroom observation, to collect data about teaching.

3. *Similar procedures for tenured and nontenured teachers.* Most common law systems have a tendency to apply one set of procedures and required processes to all teachers regardless of their contractual status with the district. The one exception to this rule is that whatever the required procedure is, it is done more often to nontenured teachers than it is to tenured teachers. That it is done more often does not counteract the fact that the same procedure is still used with all teachers regardless of their training, their experience, or their particular situation.

4. *Major emphasis on summative evaluation.* The major purpose of most CL systems is to make judgments about people as to their effectiveness in a work situation. By definition, this emphasis on judgments of people puts common law systems into the category of summative evaluation. The emphasis tends to be on providing teachers a statement of where they stand or how they compare with others rather than on descriptions of the kinds of things they are doing and how that data might be used to enhance or improve their performance (formative evaluation).

5. *The existence of standardized criteria.* The one example of an instrument that is provided typifies what is often called the trait approach to teacher evaluation. A district makes some determination of criteria that can be applied to all teachers. These criteria are most often stated in the form of traits, characteristics, styles, or behaviors that constitute what is important for that district. What these criteria are tends to be a locally determined matter. They usually emerge from an evaluation committee in the form of individual preferences of the members of the committees or are flagrantly borrowed from instruments used by other districts. The assumption here seems to be that there does exist a set of criteria that can be used to evaluate all teachers in a district regardless of the multitude of contextual conditions that may exist.

6. *The formats of the required instrumentation force comparative judgments to be made between and among people.* In most common law systems the standardized criteria are accompanied by some sort of scaling device. While the actual rating system itself may vary from a five–item scale (magnificent, wonderful, good, fair, rotten) to a three–item scale (satisfactory, needs improvement, unsatisfactory) to a narrative format ("Mr. Johnson has a wonderful professional attitude and always dresses appropriately"), the basic premise remains the same. The supervisor must provide a high inference judgment on where the teacher stands on each of the predetermined criteria. These judgments can only be made by comparing people. This form of instrumentation is one of the clearest and most troublesome of the characteristics of the common law model.

Advantages of Common Law Models

While much maligned, the common law model does offer several advantages:

1. *It can be used in situations of high teacher-supervisor ratios.* Most common law models are by design quick and dirty. The normal requirements do not demand extensive contact between supervisor and teacher. Consequently, it is possible for a single supervisor to complete evaluation requirements on a large number of teachers. By a general rule of thumb, whenever a supervisor is responsible for the annual evaluation of more than 20 certified staff, the common law model clearly works to the supervisor's advantage.

2. *The common law model requires very little training on the part of supervisors.* The system requires a short start-up time and makes very few demands on supervisors. It obviously does not take any specific training to assist supervisors in providing high inference ratings to general standardized criteria.

3. *Common law systems allow districts to visably meet accountability demands while minimizing the often disruptive influence of evaluation.* The nature of standardized criteria, high inference ratings, high supervisor involvement, and reliance on a single and logical method of collecting data present an evaluation model that is understandable to noneducators who serve on boards of education. These same practices often become very comfortable to the staff since they promote a relatively cavalier approach to evaluation and seldom provoke any significant negative outcomes.

Complaints About Common Law Models

Most of the disadvantages tend to be the opposites of the advantages. The common law system clearly seems to violate a number of assumptions about how to best promote instructional improvement. Consequently, as suggested by Commonality 1, if a district does choose to develop a system around an attitude that accepts as the primary purpose of evaluation the improvement of instruction, then the use of a common law model would be inappropriate. The major complaints against these systems include:

1. *The common law model reinforces traditional concepts of evaluation that promote "watchdog" attitudes.* The very nature of common law systems is summative. This summative emphasis has a tendency to promote the use of evaluative data gathered for administrative purposes. It has been shown that teacher attitude towards evaluation is a significant factor in the effectiveness of a system. Zelenak and Snider (1974) found

that teachers who feel evaluation is for instructional purposes are supportive of evaluation, and teachers who feel evaluation is used for administrative purposes tend to regard the process negatively.

2. *Common law systems promote low teacher involvement and minimal contact time between supervisors and teachers.* Standard procedures in common law always have something being done to the teachers by the supervisors. Yet teachers, especially tenured teachers, only change when they feel they are a part of the process that is designed to help them improve their instruction. Experience suggests that it is unlikely that teachers will be willing to change if they feel no ownership at all in the system.

3. *There is a heavy emphasis on standardized criteria.* It is particularly paradoxical that school districts praise themselves for their programs emphasizing individual differences in students while maintaining a teacher evaluation system that relies on standardized criteria. In effect they are saying that regardless of grade level, subject matter, ability levels of kids, experience, training, physical setting, etc., all teachers can be compared on the same set of criteria. This concept, perhaps more than any other, is seen as the major roadblock to jointly developed cooperative activities between teachers and supervisors in the area of supervision and evaluation. There is a presumptuousness about the concept that anyone can identify a finite number of criteria that are so important that all teachers should be compared against them. As can be seen by looking at the example of a typical common law instrument (Figure 4), the criteria tend to address relatively general areas of competence, deal with ambiguous definitions, and address a number of characteristics or traits in which there is virtually no evidence to support their impact on kids and what they learn in schools. Perhaps this characteristic of common law models, more than anything else, offers the major reason for considering other alternatives.

4. *Closely related to the preceding criticism is the fact that most criteria on common law instruments tend to be administrative rather than teaching criteria.* The rating scale offers a classic illustration of typical criteria. Often as much as 70 percent of the criteria contained on common law evaluation instruments relate to administrative and personal concerns rather than to items that deal with the teacher's performance in the classroom. This means of selecting criteria for inclusion on an instrument only reinforces "watchdog attitudes," promotes the notion of a system designed primarily for administrative purposes rather than for instructional improvement, and focuses time and energy on the part of the supervisors and the teachers in relatively unproductive areas.

5. *Common law models force supervisors to make judgments between people when there is no need to do so.* As discussed in Commonality 1, the due process procedures defined by law regarding the dismissal of tenured teachers do not require a district to make comparative judgments between people. Many districts possess a false belief about what is required and what will aid in the dismissal of a tenured teacher. What has happened in so many districts is that supervisors are forced by the common law system to make comparisons and judgments between people that are ultimately never used in any way. Once the ratings are made, they are placed in personnel folders in central offices, never to be seen again. As a result of this type of administrative rating, the relationship between the supervisor and the teacher often deteriorates causing both individuals to question the value of the procedure and the purpose it serves. Before long, attitudes towards the evaluation system become so negative that there is virtually no chance for evaluation to have a positive effect (Bolton, 1973, p. 96).

Goal-Setting Models

In recent years, the displeasure with traditional evaluation models has grown steadily. The disadvantages of common law systems provided a major impetus for trying to change evaluation procedures. This dissatisfaction was occurring at the same time the general push for accountability was being felt within the education community. The confluence of these two motivations for change created the conditions that fostered the second most frequently practiced model for teacher evaluation—goal setting.

A major characteristic of goal–setting models is their emphasis on an individualized approach to evaluation. There is an inherent logic in the assumption that the clearer the idea a person has of what is to be accomplished, the greater the chances for success. This belief is basic to the development of goal–setting systems. Major proponents of goal setting view it almost as much a philosophy as a technique. While there are a number of different approaches that can be used in establishing goal setting systems (these will be discussed in detail under Commonality 4), there are several assumptions about people, supervision, and evaluation that form the framework for using goal setting as the basic activity in an evaluation system.

Basic Goal-Setting Assumptions

1. Evaluation systems that are primarily oriented at finding the "bad apples" in the system or "cutting out the deadwood" are counterproduc-

tive. Such an orientation too often equates not doing something wrong with successful teaching. The focus should be on showing continual growth and improvement and continually doing things better.

2. Unless supervisors work almost daily in direct contact with an individual there is no way they can evaluate *all* the things that individual does. At best they can evaluate only three, four, or five things and then only if these "things" are well-defined. This means that priorities must be set so that the most important responsibilities are always in focus. Just as students are different, so are teachers and administrators. Priorities will differ from person to person.

3. Lack of defined priorities results in a dissipation of resources. If all tasks or responsibilities are viewed equally, individuals tend to be guided by their own interests or the situation at hand.

4. Supervision is not a passive activity. Supervisors should be actively involved in helping subordinates achieve goals and continually grow in competence. The development of subordinates is probably the most important supervisory function.

5. People often have perceptions of their priority responsibilities that differ from the perceptions of the supervisor or the organization. Until this is clarified, the individual may be growing in his or her own perceptions but not in the perceptions of the supervisor/organization. Where the priorities are the same (or close) between the individual and the supervisor, the result is positive and productive.

6. Continuous dialogue between supervisor and teacher concerning agreed upon priorities are both productive to the efficiency of the school and to the psychological/emotional well-being of the individual (McGrew, 1971).

Goal-Setting Procedures

From these assumptions a variety of practices have developed. Most are variations of three steps: setting goals in terms of expected results, working toward these goals, and reviewing progress toward the goals. The flow diagram in Figure 3 (p. 16) is one illustration of the steps that usually characterize goal-setting models (Bolton, 1973).

Iwanicki (1981, p. 213) provides basically the same outline of steps as he describes the recommended procedures in a goal-setting approach:

1. Teacher conducts self-evaluation and identifies areas for improvement.

2. Teacher develops draft of goal-setting "contract."

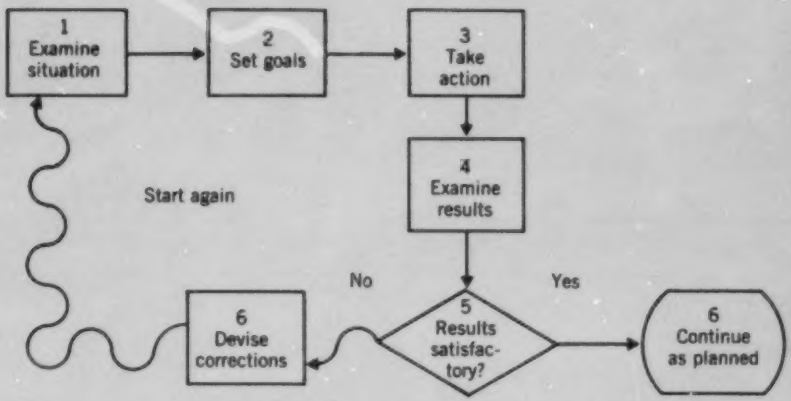
3. Teacher and evaluator confer to discuss the teacher self-evaluation information, the draft contracts, and the evaluator's perception of

areas in which improvement is needed in an effort to reach agreement on the specifics of the contract for the current evaluation cycle.

4. Teacher and evaluator confer periodically to monitor progress toward the goals stated in the contract.

5. Teacher and evaluator confer near the end of the evaluation cycle to assess the extent to which goals have been accomplished as well as to discuss future directions for improvement, which could be included in the goal contract during the next evaluation cycle.

Figure 3. Typical Procedures in Goal-Setting Models



The pre-conference that begins the evaluation cycle clearly sets off goal-setting models from standard common law procedures. In all the various approaches using goal setting, the initial conference is viewed as the most valuable and the most important activity of the process. Hyman (1975) illustrates the importance of this step when he talks about the value of teachers and supervisors conferring together to develop goals. He indicates that it:

1. Allows the teacher and the supervisor to explicitly focus their intentions in relation to the entire school context
2. Requires the teacher and the supervisor to convene an initial meeting to get to know each other better
3. Requires the teacher and the supervisor to put their expectations in writing so as to have guidelines for future conferences, observations, and evaluations
4. Requires the teacher and supervisor to make decisions that they might otherwise delay too long
5. Provides the teacher and the supervisor with the opportunity to tie together the various elements of the teacher's task in the school
6. Offers an opportunity to talk about improvement of teaching rather than only maintenance of the status quo
7. Helps set the context for future planning in curriculum and teaching.

If the document (contract) describing the goals is done well, then the whole goal-setting process is basically set up to produce a satisfactory experience. Iwanicki (1981, p. 217) suggests that the quality of the goal-setting contract can be enhanced by considering the following questions:

1. Does the contract identify specific outcomes that can be observed or measured?
2. Does the contract identify the means and criteria by which the desired outcomes will be evaluated?
3. Does the contract specify a projected date for accomplishment of the outcomes?
4. Does the contract avoid contradiction with system, building, and departmental goals?
5. Is the contract realistic and challenging?
6. Is the contract consistent with available and anticipated resources?
7. Does the contract lead to strengthened professional competencies or to improved student learning?

Strengths and Weaknesses of the Goal-Setting Model

Iwanicki (1981, p. 226) provides a good summary of the major strengths and weaknesses of goal setting in the following list:

Strengths

1. Promotes professional growth through correcting weaknesses and enhancing strengths.
2. Fosters a positive working relationship between teacher and

evaluator.

3. Focuses on the unique professional growth needs of each teacher.
4. Clarifies performance expectations and sets explicit criteria for evaluation.
5. Integrates individual performance objectives with the goals and objectives of the school organization.

Weaknesses

1. Cannot be used to rank teachers.
2. Places too much emphasis on the attainment of measurable objectives.
3. Is not realistic in terms of the time and inservice resources available in most school settings.
4. Requires too much paperwork.
5. Forces evaluators to make decisions about teacher performance in areas in which they are not qualified.

More detail concerning goal setting and the various approaches to implementing are discussed in Commonality 4. Suffice it to say at this point that the use of goal setting as the major activity in a teacher evaluation system seems to hold considerable promise.

Product Models

No model for evaluating teacher performance has generated as much controversy as the use of student performance measures as a method for assessing teacher competence. In many local and state settings, citizens and legislatures have established minimum competency measures and assessment programs that either require or strongly suggest the use of such procedures as objective measures of school and teacher effectiveness. These movements have, in most instances, gone against the prevalent attitude of professional educators regarding the appropriate design and use of such measures. While there is an inherent logic in the use of student performance data to assess teachers, the problems in doing so are significant.

Using student achievement as a measure of teacher competence rests on the assumption that an important function of teaching is to enhance student learning (Millman, 1981, p. 146). To the extent that this is true, one criterion by which a teacher should be judged is the ability to bring about changes in how much students learn. Thus, product models are based on the results or outcomes of instruction. Feldvebel (1980) states, "since we cannot prove that any one method, style, or process of teaching is superior, all that we can do is go by results." Therefore, the

emphasis of these models is not on the methods, styles, or processes, but on the results of achievement tests. Changes in students' behavior, in their growth in skills, in their knowledge of subject matter, and in their attitudes are all instances of product model measures. Borich (1977) notes that since the business of the teacher is the promotion of student growth, product models should assess teacher effectiveness by measuring changes in student achievement, both affective and cognitive, over a prespecified period of instruction. This period may be as brief as the span of a single lesson or as long as a semester or school year.

Methods for Measurement

Generally, the instruments for assessing student growth are norm-referenced tests (standardized tests) and criterion-referenced tests. Popham (1973) makes the following distinction between norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests:

> At the most basic level, norm-referenced measures ascertain an individual's performance in relationship to the performance of other individuals on the same measuring device. Because the individual is compared with some normative groups, such measures are described as norm-referenced. Most standardized tests of achievement or intellectual ability are norm-referenced measures. Criterion-referenced measures ascertain an individual's status with respect to some criterion or performance standard. Because the individual is compared with some established criterion, rather than with other individuals, these measures are described as criterion-referenced. One criterion-referenced test is the Red Cross Senior Life Saving Test, since an individual must display certain swimming skills to pass the examination, irrespective of how well others perform on the test.

Working with John McNeil and Jason Millman, Popham developed a method for assessing teacher performance. This approach, referred to as the PMM method, operates as follows:

> 1. A teacher is given a measurable instructional objective (along with a sample test item) and directions to plan a short lesson—15 to 20 minutes—designed to (a) promote learner mastery of the objective, and (b) be interesting to the learners. If the topic is novel, the teacher is also given requisite background information.
> 2. The teacher plans the lesson, incorporating whatever instructional procedures he deems appropriate.
> 3. The teacher presents the lesson to a small group of learners—six to eight students.
> 4. The learners are then administered a post-test based on the objective. Although the post-test has not previously been seen by the teacher, its nature is readily inferable from the objective and sample test item. The learners also rate the lesson in terms of its interest.
> 5. An appraisal of the instructor's skill on the teaching performance test is provided by both the cognitive index—and learners' post-test performance—and the affective index—the learners' interest ratings (Popham, 1973, p. 57–58).

Figure 4. Evaluation of Teacher Performance

TEACHER _____ SUBJECT _____ DATE _____

DIRECTIONS: *Circle number 1 for* Outstanding; *number 2 for* Satisfactory; *number 3 for* Improvement Needed; *or number 4 for* No Opportunity To Observe.

I. Instructional Skills

A. Knowledge of the subject area 1 2 3 4
B. Evidence of preparation and planning that is in accord with objectives of the program 1 2 3 4
C. Teaches so as to guide learning, motivate, and enlist students' participation 1 2 3 4
D. Provides for differences of individuals and groups 1 2 3 4
E. Evaluates students' growth and achievement in line with objectives of the program 1 2 3 4

Comments: (Use other side for additional comments.) _____

II. Classroom and School Atmosphere

A. Maintains purposeful activity in an atmosphere of mutual respect in the classroom 1 2 3 4
B. Develops good working relationships among students 1 2 3 4
C. Keeps records and reports information 1 2 3 4
D. Exhibits responsibility in care and maintenance of school equipment 1 2 3 4
E. Teacher's attendance and promptness 1 2 3 4
F. Helps to carry out school policies and regulations 1 2 3 4

Comments: _____

III. Teacher-Staff-Parent-Community Relationships

A. Relations with parents and with other adults in the community 1 2 3 4
B. Uses information about pupils to improve learning 1 2 3 4
C. Utilizes knowledge of the community and its resources when feasible 1 2 3 4
D. Maintains harmonious relations and cooperative attitude with co-workers 1 2 3 4

Comments: _____

_____

_____

IV. Professional Participation

A. Willingness to work out procedures designed to improve instruction 1 2 3 4
B. Assumes share of school responsibilities 1 2 3 4
C. Shows evidence of professional growth 1 2 3 4

Comments: _____

_____

_____

V. Additional Comments and/or Recommendations (Please use reverse side of this form.)

White—Official Copy
Pink—Teacher's Copy
Yellow—Evaluator's Copy

_____
Evaluator's Signature

An approach that was once used in Kalamazoo, Michigan, offers another example of what a student performance model might look like within a local school district. Academic achievement of secondary school students was determined by criterion-referenced tests (Goal-Objectives-Test: A Systematic Approach to Teacher Planning, Instruction, and Evaluation). Jones (1974) listed the steps for using Goal-Objectives-Test as follows:

1. On a Goal Worksheet, the teacher identifies five to ten general goals for each course. These goals explain the most important topics, units, or concepts to be covered in a course. Examples: "Students in Eighth Grade Science will develop a knowledge and awareness of the human digestive system and how it functions."
2. Using a Course Performance Objectives Worksheet, the teacher writes from one to five performance objectives for each course goal. Example of a performance objective: "By the conclusion of the first semester, eighth grade science students will demonstrate on a teacher-made test knowledge of the human digestive system by identifying eight parts (100 percent) of the body associated with human digestion."
3. The teacher prepares an objective-referenced, mastery test designed to assess student achievement of minimal performance objectives by the end of the particular course or semester.

The major arguments advanced for the superiority of these types of approaches for teacher evaluation are that: (1) These student performance models are "objective," whereas other methods (notably rating scales and observation methods) are "subjective," and (2) The changes in pupil behavior such as those teachers produce during the instructional periods are the "real thing" about schooling. (See Glass, 1974, for an extended discussion of these arguments and the counterarguments to these positions.)

Methods for Measuring Pupil Gain

1. *The Estimated Percentage Method.* In this method, a percentage of proficiency standard is set. The teacher is then evaluated according to this standard. The procedure involves the evaluator making a judgment of approximately what percentage of the learners should perform with what percentage of proficiency (Popham, 1973). For example, an expectation of a 90-90 percentage proficiency standard might be set for a given test, which signifies that at least 90 percent of learners are expected to earn scores of 90 percent or better on that test. Generally, this procedure requires the estimator to make intuitive judgments regarding expected levels of learner proficiency.

2. *Raw-Gain Score.* Popham (1973) states that a straightforward scheme for deciding on standards might consist of merely expecting the progress of the learners during a particular year to be better than it was

during the preceding year. For instance, if a post-test minus a pre-test score equals the gain model that is employed, then a standard involving no more than the following could be used: Gain this year will be greater than gain last year.

3. *Regression Analysis.* Klein and Alkin (1972) suggest employing regression analysis to judge pupil growth. This approach involves the administration of a pre-test at the beginning of the year and a comparable or identical test at the close of the year. Based on the relationship between these two sets of data, an expected post-test score can be computed for each learner. By inspecting, teacher by teacher, the proportion of actual post-test scores that are equal to or above the expected score, a per-teacher index of the degree to which the teacher is able to promote predicted achievement can be calculated.

Issues Related to the Use of Product Models

1. *Use of Tests.* For purposes of teacher evaluation, norm-referenced tests have serious disadvantages when used to measure pupil growth (Sax, 1974; Borich, 1977; Popham, 1981). For example, a norm-referenced test contains items that cover not only the main ideas or skills taught, but also much finer points, knowledge of which may not be essential to proficiency in the subject area or skill under consideration. In addition, a norm-referenced test ordinarily has a low degree of overlap with the actual objectives of instruction at any given time or place.

According to Popham (1981), a norm-referenced test does not give a clear notion of the skills or knowledge to be tested. It is almost impossible for teachers to provide a truly on-target instructional experience for their students. He also points out that if the teachers don't know what the task is, evaluation, on the basis of such ill-defined criteria, is fundamentally unjust.

In evaluating teachers, pupil performance is often measured as an indication of the teacher's effectiveness in communicating specific content or skills. Therefore, tests used for this purpose must cover the content or skills the teacher has emphasized rather than more remote, highly discriminating content. A criterion-referenced test seems to suit this purpose.

The criterion-referenced test is used to ascertain an individual's status with respect to a well-defined behavior domain (Popham, 1978). Popham notes that a well-formed criterion-referenced test will communicate unambiguously to teachers what the nature of the evaluative criteria will be. In addition, Borich (1977) agrees with Popham that a criterion-referenced test will more likely show the teacher's success in achieving the goal by indicating the number of pupils who have mastered the material taught.

2. *The Influences of the Classroom.* Soar (1973) states that a major difficulty in evaluating the teacher is the amount of influence the classroom can have in relation to other influences on pupil achievement. Such factors as I.Q. and the socioeconomic status of the pupil affect achievement levels, and can also affect rate of learning and persistence in learning.

Furthermore, Borich (1977) concludes that parental expectations, the pupil's prior achievement, the socioeconomic status of the family, and the general intellectual quality of the pupil's home life may have greater influence on the pupil's measured achievement than does the teacher.

3. *Measurement-Statistical Problems.* Gain scores are commonly used in measuring the effect of a teacher on student learning. Some researchers simply used a raw difference between pre-test and post-test. Others recommend the use of regression approaches. Each method has advantages and disadvantages.

The major problem of raw difference scores is that they are unreliable. Moreover, students with high pre-test scores usually show a small gain (Linn and Slinde, 1977). This phenomenon is usually referred to as "regression effect."

The regression approach seems to be somewhat more appropriate since this method eliminates, to some degree, the problem of the regression effect. However, predicted post-test scores resulting from the regression equation still have the significant problem of low reliability.

Because of these and other problems associated with product models (see Millman, 1981, for an excellent discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of student performance models), it seems reasonable to suggest that there is not sufficient support in the research community to justify the use of student performance as a form of summative evaluation. While there are available suggestions as to how to minimize the dangers of using student achievement as a summative evaluation tool (Millman, 1981), the recommended procedures seem beyond the training levels and the time constraints of local administrators.

There is, however, growing support for the value of including the collection of student performance data for use as input in the formative evaluation of teaching. The concept of data-based instruction (Deno and Mirkin, 1977), while primarily applicable to small special education settings, offers an excellent example of how student performance data can be used to make instructional decisions. Millman (1981) also offers an excellent description of how student data can be used formatively.

In summary, while there is a surface logic to the value of using student achievement as a summative measure of teacher competence, prevailing opinion seems to be that the inherent problems in the process (inadequate tests, confounding influences on student growth, lack of

reliable statistical measures) prevent product models from being practical. State and local school officials who are feeling pressure for the use of such practices should be ready to bring to bear the full weight of current professional thinking. On the other hand, districts committed to the concept of improving classroom instruction would do well to include, with the cooperation of the teaching staff, the use of student performance data as one additional form of input in the instructional decision–making process. (See Millman, 1981, for a discussion of ways to minimize the problems that are also present when using student achievement data for formative evaluation purposes.)

The Clinical Supervision Model

In the area of supervision, no term has more visibility than clinical supervision. This visibility and the experiential data that suggest it is an effective method for improving instructional practices has led many districts to proclaim their intent to adopt clinical supervision as their evaluation model. On the surface this seems like a logical approach to establishing evaluation systems, especially if the dominant purpose is to improve instruction. There are, however, significant definitional issues which must be dealt with before clinical supervision can be "used" in its most appropriate fashion.

The Collegial Nature of Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision takes it label and the assumption behind the concept from the initial work of Cogan and Goldhammer. Cogan (1973, p. 54) defines clinical supervision as follows:

> Clinical supervision may, therefore, be defined as the rationale and practice designed to improve the teacher's classroom performance. It takes its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of these data and the relationships between teacher and supervisor form the basis of the program, procedures, and strategies designed to improve the students' learning by improving the teacher's classroom behavior.

Goldhammer (1969, p. 54) offers the following definition:

> Given close observation, detailed observational data, face-to-face interaction between the supervisor and the teacher, and the intensity of focus that binds the two together in an intimate professional relationship, the meaning of "clinical" is pretty well filled out.

Both of these definitions stress the importance of a close and intense relationship between the teacher and the supervisor. This relationship puts a heavy emphasis on a collegial rather than an authoritarian

orientation. The focus is expected to be on teacher motivation and improvement rather than on quality control. In this respect it is more of a supervisory model than an evaluation model. In stating a series of principles of clinical supervision, Sergiovanni (1982) reinforces the collegial nature of the teacher-supervisor relationship that is a necessary part of the clinical supervisor concept.

1. *Teaching is a complex set of activities that requires careful analysis.* Most forms of evaluation/supervision often oversimplify the nature of teaching and provide the supervisor with an array of predetermined criteria to be applied to the teaching under study. Clinical supervision recognizes the complexities involved by extracting issues from the teaching situation at hand and by relying heavily on the teacher's analysis of issues to be studied.

2. *Teachers are reasonably competent professionals who desire help if it is offered in a collegial rather than authoritarian way.* Clinical supervision assumes that in most cases it is presumptuous of supervisors to tell certified professionals how to teach and that merely prescribing remedies to teachers in an effort to improve their teaching is not an effective change strategy. The heart of clinical supervision is an intensive, continuous, mature relationship between teacher and supervisor colleagues that has as its intent the improvement of professional practice.

3. *Supervision is a partnership in inquiry whereby the supervisor functions as one with more experience and insight or, in the case of equals (working with tenured, experienced teachers), one with a better vantage point in analyzing another's teaching rather than as an expert who determines correctness and who provides admonitions.* The authority base of the supervisor is very important to the process. The supervisor derives his or her authority from being able to collect and provide information desired by the teacher and from being able to help the teacher use this information profitably.

4. *The purpose of clinical supervision is to assist teachers to modify existing patterns of teaching in ways in which the teacher desires. Supervision/evaluation is therefore responsive to the needs and desires of the teacher, not the supervisor.* What is significant about this principle is that it is the teacher who decides the course of the clinical supervisory cycle, the issues to be discussed, and for what purpose. Obviously, supervisors are not and cannot be without influence, but influence stems from being helpful in clarifying issues of importance to the teacher.

5. *The supervisor's job is to help the teacher select teaching goals to be improved, teaching issues to be illuminated, and to assist the teacher's progress toward goals.* It is the supervisor's responsibility to provide general support for the teacher, to enhance the teacher's overall view of teaching, and to help clarify issues. This is done by providing technical assistance through the careful and systematic analysis of classroom events. The purpose is to provide a nonevaluative description of teaching and its effects. This description becomes the data base to be used by supervisor and teacher together to analyze issues of importance to the teacher.

6. *Ultimately, effective clinical supervision increases the teacher's desire for and skills of self-improvement.* In clinical supervision the supervisor works for his or her own obsolescence. Since teachers play a key role in the process and, in effect, also learn how to supervise in a clinical way, advocates of clinical supervision hope that the process will evolve into a system of peer and self-supervision.

Steps of Clinical Supervision

While there are different labels and steps in the clinical supervision cycle (Goldhammer, 1969; Cogan, 1973; Acheson and Gall, 1980), there is general agreement that the sequence of clinical supervision contains five stages:

1. Pre-observation conference
2. Observation of teaching
3. Analysis and strategy
4. Post-observation conference
5. Post-conference analysis

Acheson and Gall (1980) attempt to simplify the steps by suggesting that at a practical level clinical supervision can be thought of as the planning conference, the classroom observation, and the feedback conference. Drawing on original material developed by Sergiovanni (1982), a brief description of each of these stages follows. Commonality 6 will deal in more detail with the way each of these steps are being used in developing effective evaluation systems. Also, for a more detailed discussion of the stages of clinical supervision, see Anderson and Krajewski (1980).

1. *Pre-planning.* One of the purposes of the pre-observation conference is to establish or re-establish communication in a relaxed manner. The quality of the relationship established at this point has a significant effect on the success of the next stages of the cycle. The supervisor should engage the teacher in a conceptual rehearsal of the lesson to be

observed. The teacher should provide an overview of his or her intents. The supervisor might wish to raise some questions for clarification and, depending on the relationship between the two, even make suggestions for improving the lesson before it unfolds. Typically, this rehearsal by the teacher identifies an array of teaching issues. Clinical supervision requires that the supervisor and teacher be selective in the sense that a close study be made of only a small number of issues at any one time. Certainly supervisors participate in this narrowing process by making suggestions, but it is the teacher who should assume major responsibility for setting the supervisory agenda. What would the teacher like to know about this class? On what aspects of teaching would he or she like feedback? This phase concludes with the teacher and supervisor reaching a fairly explicit agreement about the focus and the range of the supervisory activity and the specific agendas to be addressed. Advocates of clinical supervision feel that the teacher should have as complete a picture as possible of events to occur as the process of supervision unfolds.

2. *Observation of Teaching*. Basic to clinical supervision is the actual and systematic observation of teaching. The focus is the teacher in action and the classroom story that unfolds as a result of this action. It is what the teacher says and does, how students react, and what actually occurs during a specific teaching episode that forms the basis for the data collected. Notes taken during the observation should be descriptive rather than evaluative. These descriptive notes, based on the agreed focus from the pre-conference, are then analyzed by the supervisor. This raw data must be converted into a manageable and meaningful form. Clinical supervision techniques recommend that the analysis yield significant teaching patterns and that critical incidents be identified for use in the supervisory conference. It is important to keep in mind the agreement initially reached with the teacher. What was the purpose of this observation originally? How does the collected data illustrate this purpose? Can the data be arranged in a fashion that communicates clearly the feedback the teacher seeks without prejudgments from the supervisor? Having thus organized the data, attention must now be given to building a strategy for working with the teacher. In doing this, the supervisor needs to consider such things as the initial agreement from the pre-conference, the issues uncovered during the analysis of the data, the quality of the relationship with the teacher, and the competency or experience level of the teacher. Once the strategy has been thought through carefully, the supervisor is ready for the next stage in the cycle.

3. *Feedback Conference*. Having accurate and complete information to discuss is the essential ingredient of a successful feedback conference. The information must be as objective as possible, understandable to both

parties, and appropriate for the agreed upon concerns. If the observational data meet these criteria, then, according to Acheson and Gall (1980, p. 68), the feedback conference should take the following form:

(a) The observer displays the data recorded during the observation.
(b) The teacher *analyzes* what was happening during the lesson as evidenced by the data. The supervisor simply helps to clarify what behaviors the recorded data represent.
(c) The teacher, with the help of the supervisor, *interprets* the behaviors of teacher and students as represented by the observational data. At this stage the teacher becomes more evaluative because causes and consequences must be discussed as desirable or undesirable.
(d) The teacher, with assistance (sometimes guidance) from the supervisor, *decides* on alternative approaches for the future to attend to dissatisfactions with the observed teaching or to emphasize those aspects that were satisfying.
(e) The supervisor *reinforces* the teacher's announced intentions for change when the supervisor agrees with them or helps the teacher modify the intentions if there is some disagreement.

Clinical supervision assumes that most teachers—when supplied with adequate information and allowed to act on it—can analyze, interpret, and decide in a self-directed and constructive manner. At the conclusion of the feedback conference the teacher and supervisor may recognize a need for other kinds of information or make plans for the next observation. In many instances, the feedback conference for one observation becomes the planning conference for the next.

While there is sufficient evidence to indicate the effectiveness of clinical supervision (Blumberg and Amidon, 1965; Boyan and Copeland, 1974; Shinn, 1976), the studies dealt with clinical supervision as a supervisory model rather than an evaluation procedure. With the heavy emphasis on collegial relationships, nondirective technique, and reliance on assumptions about teachers being willing and able to assume major responsibility, clinical supervision can be viewed as a philosophy as much as a process. So much of what must be present for true clinical supervision to occur seems to be significantly prohibited by the nature of real-life teacher evaluation. Supervision carried out by a line administrator within the framework of a teacher evaluation system would violate what clinical supervision is by definition. As will be seen in the discussion of Commonality 6, it may be that some of the techniques inherent in clinical supervision are especially useful as part of an effective teacher evaluation system, but it is not appropriate to view clinical supervision as an evaluation model.

Artistic or Naturalistic Models

The artistic model is the most recently developed of the approaches reviewed in this section. While this model does not exist in any local school setting, nor perhaps should, it does include positions and perspectives that are unique and potentially useful. Artistic approaches are of interest primarily because they view teacher evaluation from a set of assumptions different from other methods, and look to disciplines and applied fields not often viewed seriously by those involved in teacher evaluation. As Sergiovanni (1982) suggests,

> Artistic approaches to supervision and teacher evaluation stem from a belief that despite the existence of scientific aspects of teaching, teaching is essentially an art. Advocates of this view, for example, point out that there is often a performance quality to teaching characterized by both skill and grace which liken it to an aesthetic experience.

Perhaps the best known advocate of teaching as art is Elliot Eisner. Eisner (1979) argues that teachers, like painters and dancers, make judgments based largely on qualities that unfold during the course of teaching; that teaching is influenced by contingencies that are unpredictable; and that the ends achieved in teaching are often created in process. With this sort of conception of teaching, schools, supervisors, and teachers must accept a broader view of educational objectives and outcomes than is common under more traditional ways of looking at teaching and supervising. Sergiovanni (1982) offers that artistic approaches to evaluation are useful because they are able to map out the unpredictable nature of teaching and to give attention to unanticipated meanings and outcomes discovered during the course of teaching. Implicit in this is the assumption that unanticipated objectives and outcomes are legitimate and desirable. Obviously, many systems, supervisors, and even teachers do not accept this view, preferring to assume that good teaching follows a certain logic driven by the stating and pursuing of specific objectives.

Objectives and Outcomes of Artistic Models

It seems clear that advocates of artistic models recognize several kinds of objectives and outcomes as legitimate. (See Sergiovanni, 1982, for a more detailed description of these objectives and outcomes.)

1. *Behavioral objectives* specify outcomes in the form of proposed changes in learners. They are statements about what the learner is to be like after completing a learning experience. They do not speak to what the

teacher does, the methods used, or the nature of the educational encounter. Such objectives are intended to define measurable outcomes in order to facilitate direct evaluation.

2. *Problem-solving objectives* pose a problem for students to solve and a set of criteria to be used in solving the problem. They provide more freedom than behavioral objectives for students to determine what will be learned.

3. *Expressive outcomes* are the consequences of teaching activities and learning encounters that are intentionally planned for students. Here the teacher's concern is not with outcomes *per se* but with the learning encounter. Sergiovanni (1982) uses as an example a teacher planning a mock trial in which the students will participate. No specific outcomes or objectives are stated beforehand; rather, the teacher feels that this activity is right for the moment and will produce a variety of benefits.

4. *Unanticipated outcomes* are gains that are beneficial to students as a result of an educational encounter, but which are not logically linked to that encounter. They are the side benefits of a teaching activity.

In numbers 3 and 4 above, outcomes replaced the use of objectives. This further reinforces the difference between how traditional views of teaching promote more scientific approaches to supervision while more artistic views of teaching encourage more naturalistic approaches. Artistic approaches to evaluation attempt to focus on the subtleties of outcomes in classrooms and to provide a process for describing these subtleties.

Sergiovanni (1982) indicates the following links between objectives and outcomes as described above and supervision and evaluation strategies:

1. When concerned with behavioral objectives, the evaluation territory is specific.
2. When concerned with problem–solving objectives, the evaluation territory is narrow.
3. When concerned with expressive outcomes, the evaluation territory is broad but known.
4. When concerned with unanticipated outcomes, the evaluation territory is unknown.

Thus the more specific or narrow the objectives under consideration, the more appropriate traditional supervision and evaluation strategies become. The more expressive and unanticipated outcomes are viewed as important, the more useful artistic or naturalistic strategies become.

The Intuitive Nature of Artistic Supervision

The actual practices that comprise artistic or naturalistic approaches include basically classroom observation and the reporting of those observations. The key to these practices is not in prescribing a specific set of activities to be followed, such as the sequence of events recommended in clinical supervision. It is, rather, in the general appreciative and intuitive nature of the observer and in the stye and quality of the written description. Eisner (1982) describes this best:

> By artistic I mean using an approach to supervision that relies on the sensitivity, perceptivity, and knowledge of the supervisor as a way of appreciating the significant subtleties occurring in the classroom, and that exploits the expressive, poetic, and often metaphorical potential of language to convey what has been seen to teachers or to others whose decisions effect what goes on in schools.

Basic to this approach is not just the presence of the supervisor in the classroom but the supervisor truly *seeing* the teaching. This takes two forms. The first deals with sensing what has unfolded over time—the character of what has occurred, the words spoken, the pace and timing of events, the quality of both student and teacher responses. Perceptions are directed at appreciating the character and quality of the performance as a whole and the various "parts" that comprise it.

In addition, every teacher may be said to have a characteristic mode of expression, which the first-rate supervisor should be able to recognize in order to help the teacher move in the direction he or she is "by nature" inclined. Teachers are differentiated by their style and by their particular strengths. Artistically oriented supervisors would recognize this style and help the teacher exploit this strength (Eisner, 1982).

To develop the appropriate appreciation of the qualities described above, the supervisor must have considerable exposure to the teaching process. The typical one-shot, 30-minute classroom visit can never provide the appropriate level of emersion in the classroom that is a necessary part of artistic and naturalistic approaches. In order to gain a reliable level of exposure to allow appreciation and feeling to grow, a supervisor needs to spend from 15 to 25 hours in a classroom over several months. During this time the supervisor would focus particularly on the expressive character of what the teacher and students were doing and the messages contained in the explicit actions in which they were engaged. The supervisor would attempt to understand the experiences that pupils and teachers were having, and not simply describe or count the behaviors they were displaying. This appreciative side of supervision is referred to by Eisner as *educational connoisseurship* (Eisner, 1982, p. 62). However, more than connoisseurship is required in artistic models—the supervisor

is also required to artistically construct the situation he or she experiences. This part of artistic supervision Eisner calls *educational criticism*. As he describes it:

> By the term criticism I mean rendering in artistic language what one has experienced so that it is helpful to the teacher or to others whose views have a bearing on the schools. I do not mean by criticism the negative appraisal of something. I use the term as a kind of analogue to art criticism, film criticism, music criticism, drama criticism. . . The critic's function—and I would argue one of the major functions of the supervisor—is to help others appreciate what has transpired. Supervisors can do this by first having developed a high level of educational connoisseurship since it is the process that provides the content for criticism, and second, by being able to convey to others, often through expressive or artistic use of language what has taken place (Eisner, 1982, p. 62).

Eisner offers the following excerpt from an educational critique as an illustration of written educational criticism by a classroom supervisor:

> The room invites me in. It is a large, extended room drawn at the waist: it was once two single rooms that have come together to talk. Surely I could spend a whole childhood here. A wealth of learning materials engulfs me, each piece beckoning me to pick it up. The patchwork rug that hides the floor is soft and fluffy and warm. Some desks have gathered together for serious business. Chairs converse across semicircular tables. At the bookself, dozens and dozens of books, slouch around, barely in rows, leaning on each other's shoulders. Children's drawings line the walls. What are those masses of shiny objects growing from the ceiling like silver stalactites in the secret corners of the room? I focus in on thousands of tiny . . . beer can pull-tabs . . . crunched together, straining to pull the roof in.
>
> A massive wooden beehive called The Honeycomb, with geodesic cubicles in which to hide yourself. A towering ten-foot dinosaur made of wire and papier-mâché, splotched with paint . . . blue and red colors crawling up its body. The monster is smiling helplessly—is he not?—because a convoy of tiny people have just been tickling him with their paintbrushes.
>
> In another corner, there are several plants growing in small cups. An incubator with eggs. Over there a phonograph and some records. A map on the chalkboard locates the hills I just drove through—the ones presided over by those houses. Next to the map there are frozen smiles on faces captured within tiny squares of paper. Strings connect the smiles with places on the map. This smile lives *there;* that one *here*. But all of the smiles, I have come to learn, live inside this room.
>
> Mostly in this room there are letters and words. Lined up on the walls: Aa Bb Cc Dd Ee Ff. In combinations which have meaning—at least for me: leave, would, said. Blue next to a dab of blue paint. The words appear on the faces of the books and gather together in great multitudes on their insides. On the map. On the material that covers the couch. Soon in my eyes, even when I shut them. And later they pop out of the smiles of the children and hang in the air. Caressing each other in a low mumur, the omnipresent words pervade the room.
>
> Soon I am not alone. The other children are pouring through the door, infusing the room with life, brimming with energy hankering for release. Mostly fair-skinned, light-haired, blue-eyed, and all fresh and ebullient, these are

yesterday's Gerber babies. Lots of Erics and Chrises and Heathers and Lisas. Each seems to be drawn to his own corner of the room, his energy pulling him toward a special task. One moves to the bookshelf and snatches up a book. Several take themselves to the math table. Three crawl in the Honeycomb. One tickles the dinosaur with a paint brush. Others string pull-tabs or watch a film (Barone, 1979).

From this, the reader is able to glean a vivid image of the situation and to infer some of the values it reflects. Detail is also provided about the nature of the relationships, as well as the character of the tasks that are used. This ability to see a situation is crucial to supervision. A major role of a supervisor is to enable people to see aspects of their situation that they are too closely involved in to recognize.

Characteristics of Artistic Supervision

According to Eisner (1982, p. 66), an artistic approach to supervision and evaluation characteristically:

1. Requires attention to the muted or expressive character of events, not simply to their incidence or literal meaning.
2. Requires high levels of educational connoisseurship, the ability to see what is significant yet subtle.
3. Appreciates the unique contributions of the teacher to the educational development of the young, as well as those contributions a teacher may have in common with others.
4. Demands that attention be paid to the process of classroom life and that this process be observed over extended periods of time so that the significance of events can be placed in a temporal context.
5. Requires that rapport be established between supervisor and those supervised so that dialogue and a sense of trust can be established between the two.
6. Requires an ability to use language in a way that exploits its potential to make public the expressive character of what has been seen.
7. Requires the ability to interpret the meaning of the events occurring to those who experience them and to be able to appreciate their educational import.
8. Accepts the fact that the individual supervisor with his or her strengths, sensitivities, and experience is the major "instrument" through which the educational situation is perceived and its meaning construed.

Obviously, the criticism of artistic or naturalistic models will usually revolve around the lack of precision by traditional standards that accompany activities relying on intuition and feeling. In one sense, however, this is both a strength and a weakness. It can be viewed as a weakness if, as indicated earlier, the supervisory emphasis is based on a more technical view of teaching and if this is the only evaluation model applied. On the other hand, if a more complete view of teaching and learning is emphasized and naturalistic approaches are used as a part of the supervisory process, then this model can add considerable strength.

Conceptually, the importance placed by artistic approaches on being aware of the variety of outcomes that can be anticipated or unanticipated in the classroom is important knowledge that can only enhance the general supervisory process. The emphasis on descriptive/analytic skills in the recording and interpreting of classroom observation also provides considerable overlap for a number of prevalent evaluation practices.

However, from the perspective of its applicability to local teacher evaluation systems, the time and training required for the appropriate involvement of the supervisor in the classroom and for the production of the type of educational criticism needed to be worthwhile make artistic or naturalistic models impractical. However, the concepts inherent in this model make its appearance in this list necessary and useful.

These evaluation models are presented to give school districts a sense of what options are available for consideration. Section II will deal with those commonalities that address more specific activities or practices that seem to contribute to effective teacher evaluation systems. Combining the information provided in sections I and II should allow school districts to make logical and more knowledgeable decisions about how to develop successful and effective teacher evaluation.

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COMMONALITY 3:

Separation of Administrative and Supervisory Behavior

While it may seem idealistic, separating administrative from supervisory behavior is an important part of establishing an effective evaluation system. At this point in the discussion of commonalities, it is already clear that an instructional improvement orientation and a set of procedures reflecting that view are necessary ingredients for a successful evaluation system. In addition, a perspective that views evaluation realistically seems paramount. This is never more true than in dealing with this commonality.

Traditionally, teachers have argued that the concept of evaluation is perfectly acceptable. Most teachers welcome the opportunity to discuss their work with other adults. Their primary objections concern the way evaluation is done, not whether it should be done (Zelenak and Snider, 1974). The problem of establishing an appropriate relationship between the supervisor and the teacher within the evaluation system is difficult and often exacerbated by traditional supervisory training. Most often, the supervisory act, as part of an instructional improvement system, is presented in the literature as a cooperative, nonthreatening experience occurring between two consenting adults. Suggestions and recommendations for such things as conferencing styles, goal establishment, teaching behaviors, data collection methods, levels of involvement, and future contacts are all built around the concept of a mutually beneficial, collegial relationship. In reality, however, over 80 percent of instructional supervision is conducted by line administrators who observe and talk with teachers because their teacher evaluation systems require them to do so. In practice, then, we have line administrators who visit classrooms a minimum number (one to three) of times each school year and then present teachers with feedback in the form of the district's evaluation instrument. The administrator—generally untrained in observation skills,

instructional technique, or instructional supervision strategies—tries to conduct a formative evaluation to gather data that can be used in making summative ratings. Those ratings are based on criteria listed on a districtwide evaluation instrument—criteria that are primarily administrative in nature and have little to do with the actual classroom observation.

This type of situation places both the supervisor and teacher in roles that inhibit their ability to operate in an open, cooperative manner. This does not need to be a natural outcome of a teacher evaluation system. Effective systems address the problem realistically by establishing procedures and instruments that allow the teacher and supervisor to work from a less administratively oriented framework. Practically, line administrators can never totally remove their administrative hat and become peers of teachers. However, it does seem that administrators can tilt that hat and, under certain guidelines, act more as instructional supervisors than building administrators.

Teachers generally indicate that they do not mind administrators acting like administrators. They recognize that certain bureaucratic rules and administrative behavior are natural in an educational organization. Teachers expect to have to conform to certain standards of behavior, especially as they relate to the efficient and harmonious functioning of the organization. But the majority of teachers believe that when administrators walk into the classroom, they are entering territory in which the teacher knows just as much, if not more, about how to perform effectively. Bolton (1973) found that administrators also felt considerable discomfort at having to come into a teacher's classroom for observation and then being required by the evaluation system to comment on the quality of what was occurring. Even if it is done artificially, an evaluation system must try to separate administrator as administrator and administrator as supervisor.

Many tough, accountability oriented boards of education have been sold on the concept by being convinced that all teachers are monitored continuously. Every district should have a set of minimum performance standards to which everyone is expected to adhere. These minimum standards tend to be primarily administrative or personal in nature (adherence to school policy, appearance, professional attitude, personal relationships with staff and students, parent and community relationships, and so on). No administrator needs to be trained in how to monitor the performance of teachers against these standards. They are continuously assessed by the informal and unobtrusive nature of administrators and teachers working, living, and interacting in the same environment.

No special set of procedures or instruments needs to be established to deal with these issues. As violations occur in these areas they are dealt with as they should be, when or immediately after they happen. If a

teacher shows up late for work three days in a row, it is likely that the principal will be one of the first to know. It is unlikely that a principal will wait until an evaluation conference following an observation to encourage the teacher to start showing up on time. In most cases the principal would talk with the teacher immediately in order to remind him or her of starting times and the procedure for calling in late. The situation is dealt with as soon as possible after it occurs. Teachers accept these occurrences because they are handled in an appropriate manner and at the appropriate time. There is no need to store up evaluation comments on administrative criteria for inclusion in conferences following observations.

Many districts are handling this separation by actually setting up two different parts to their evaluation procedure. The first part deals with the continuous monitoring of performance as guided by a clear and visible set of minimum expectations. Most often this takes the form of a general job description that is included as a regular part of the evaluation system. Following is an example of how this typically looks:

A. The Monticello appraisal system will be made up of two related but separate parts:

1. *An appraisal of minimum performance expectations*

An integral part of both tenured and non-tenured staff's employment in the school district is an on-going and continuous appraisal by their supervisor of the staff members ability to meet minimum performance expectations. As appropriate to the various jobs performed by staff in the Monticello School District, the minimum performance expectations include, but are not necessarily limited to, the following:

—Meets and instructs the student(s) in the locations and at the time designated.

—Develops and maintains a classroom environment conducive to effective learning within the limits of the resources provided by the district.

—Prepares for classes assigned, and shows written evidence of preparation upon request of the immediate supervisor.

—Encourages students to set and maintain high standards of classroom behavior.

—Provides an effective program of instruction in accordance with the adopted curriculum and consisten: with physical limitations of the location provided and the needs and capabilities of the individuals or student groups involved to include:

a. Review of previously taught material
b. Presentation of new material
c. Evaluation of student progress on a regular basis
d. Use of a variety of teaching materials and techniques

—Strives to implement by instruction and action, by one's own example, the district's philosophy of education and instructional goals and objectives.

—Takes all necessary and reasonable precautions to protect students, equipment, materials, and facilities.

—Maintains records as required by law, district policy, and administrative regulations.
—Assists in upholding and enforcing school rules and administrative regulations.
—Makes provision for being available to students and parents for education related purposes outside the instructional day when necessary and under reasonable terms.
—Attends and participates in faculty and department meetings.
—Cooperates with other members of the staff in planning instructional goals, objectives, and methods.
—Assists in the selection of books, equipment, and other instructional materials.
—Works to establish and maintain open lines of communication with students, parents, and colleagues concerning both the academic and behavioral progress of all students.
—Establishes and maintains cooperative professional relations with others.
—Performs related duties as assigned by the administration in accordance with the district policies and practices.

The appraisal of these minimum expectations will typically be made through a supervisor's daily contact and interaction with the staff member. When problems occur in these areas, the staff member will be contacted by the supervisor to remind them of minimum expectations in the problem area and to provide whatever assistance might be helpful. If the problem continues or reoccurs, the supervisor, in his or her discretion, may prepare and issue to the staff member a written notice setting forth the specific deficiency with a copy to the teacher's file. In the unlikely event that serious, intentional or flagrant violations of the minimum performance expectations occur, the supervisor, at his or her discretion, may put aside this recommended procedure and make a direct recommendation for more formal and immediate action (Monticello Teacher Evaluation System, 1982).

As can be seen from this job description, a number of areas are covered, including administrative, personal, and general instructional concerns. The criteria are not accompanied by any rating scales or required narrative comment. They are present as a clear and visible reminder of the minimum expectations for performance for certified employees in that district. Attention is brought to items from this description only as it is appropriate. There is no required write-up on these areas at the end of the year. The attitude is held by the district and reflected in the procedural statements that the great majority of teachers do their jobs and there is no need to waste the supervisor's or the teacher's time on these areas unless it is appropriate. A procedure is clearly laid out for handling those infrequent occurrences when a problem arises, and it is left at that. In effect, no news is good news. There is no need for supervisors to have to write an evaluative statement on every

teacher's performance in these areas. With rare exceptions, people meet these standards. This type of procedure eliminates the need for supervisors to produce a series of written comments about the adherence to administrative criteria.

Typically, then, in an evaluation system reflecting this commonality, a second part would lay out procedures for how the supervisor and the teacher will work together on direct classroom teaching activities. This type of approach allows supervisors and teachers to focus their time together on instructional matters that can rely on techniques and activities that are primarily formative in nature and that promote a more collegial supervisory relationship.

The major concepts of this section should now be clear. For an evaluation system to have the best chance to be successful, it must reflect a consistent attitude about what an evaluation system can be and can do and what its major purpose should be. In successful evaluation systems that attitude reflects a commitment to improving the quality and effectiveness of classroom instruction. The system and its parts are then developed in such a way as to clearly complement the stated purpose. Since a positive attitude on the part of teachers and supervisors plays such a significant role in shaping effective systems, the next step in developing evaluation procedures must be to provide ways for administrators to work with teachers in the most nonthreatening environment possible. Attitude is paramount. Teachers, particularly tenured teachers, change their behavior in classrooms only when *they* want to do so. They must be partners in the system.

Section II examines commonalities dealing with the more specific procedures and processes that seem to characterize successful systems.

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Section II.

Focusing Activities

COMMONALITY 4:

Goal Setting as the Major Activity of Evaluation

There are a variety of ways in which the general concept of goal setting has been used as the basic activity of an evaluation system. The three methods that are practiced most frequently and seem to have the most relevance for local school systems are: (1) the Management by Objectives Approach (MBO), (2) the Performance Objectives Approach (POA), and (3) the Practical Goal-Setting Approach (PGSA). All three share the belief that "successful teaching and supervising does not occur by accident. Competent persons plan, implement those plans, and evaluate the results of those plans. This is the essence of goal-setting models" (Redfern, 1980).

Each of the three approaches has been implemented in local school districts. The selection of one approach rather than another should be made, as suggested by Commonalities 1 and 2, on the basis of what the district wants its evaluation system to be and to do. The degree to which the three approaches will differ revolves around the nature of the goals, the flexibility of the teachers in setting individual goals, the concept of measurability applied to the goals, and the practicability of implementation. Consequently, if a district chooses to use the concept of goal setting as its basic model, then the selection or adaptation of one of these approaches should be based on the fundamental attitude towards evaluation that is espoused or is being encouraged.

Following is a brief description of each of the approaches. The references used in these descriptions should be reviewed if more detailed information is needed.

The Management by Objectives Approach

Management by Objectives (MBO) is an administrative process in which all the efforts of the school system are organized to achieve specific results by a predetermined date. In turn, those specific results must contribute to achieving the clearly stated long-range objectives of the school system. Odiorne (1965) offers an excellent general description of MBO:

> It is a process whereby the superior and subordinate managers of an organization jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him, and use these guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members.

Thus, the goals to be achieved dictate almost everything that occurs in the system. The educational goals, plans, policies, organizational structure, and, in the case of personnel evaluation, the goals of the individual members, are related to and determined by the goals and objectives of the organization (Lewis, 1973).

By design, MBO has a strong accountability orientation. Individuals are accountable for their contribution to certain predetermined outcomes. Thus, the MBO process would be most appropriate for those school systems who want an evaluation system that emphasizes accountability.

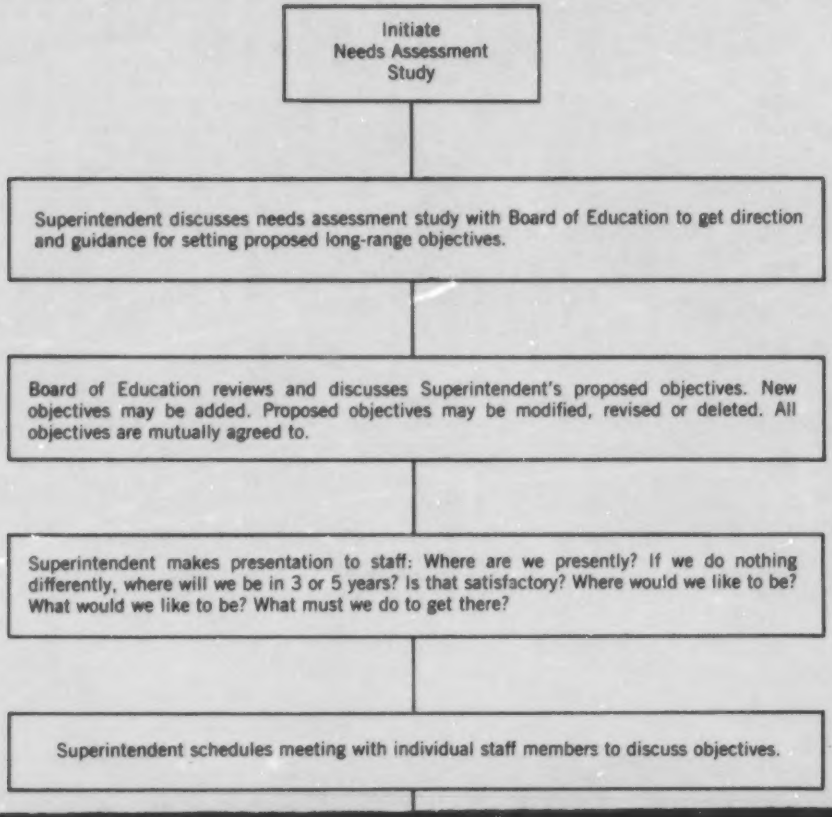
Once a district is willing to accept the basic assumptions of MBO and has committed itself to designing its teacher evaluation system around these assumptions, it is necessary to follow a standard sequence of events. Lewis (1973) suggests that since the establishment of objectives is a key to developing an effective MBO program, an appropriate definition of an objective must be developed and applied throughout the school system. He defined an MBO objective as a statement of a personal commitment to a specific accomplishment or result that is: (1) oriented towards fulfilling the mission of the school system; (2) stated in observable terms; (3) valuable for achieving the purposes of the school system; (4) worthwhile for improving performance; (5) beneficial in monitoring performance; and (6) time-phased for achieving results.

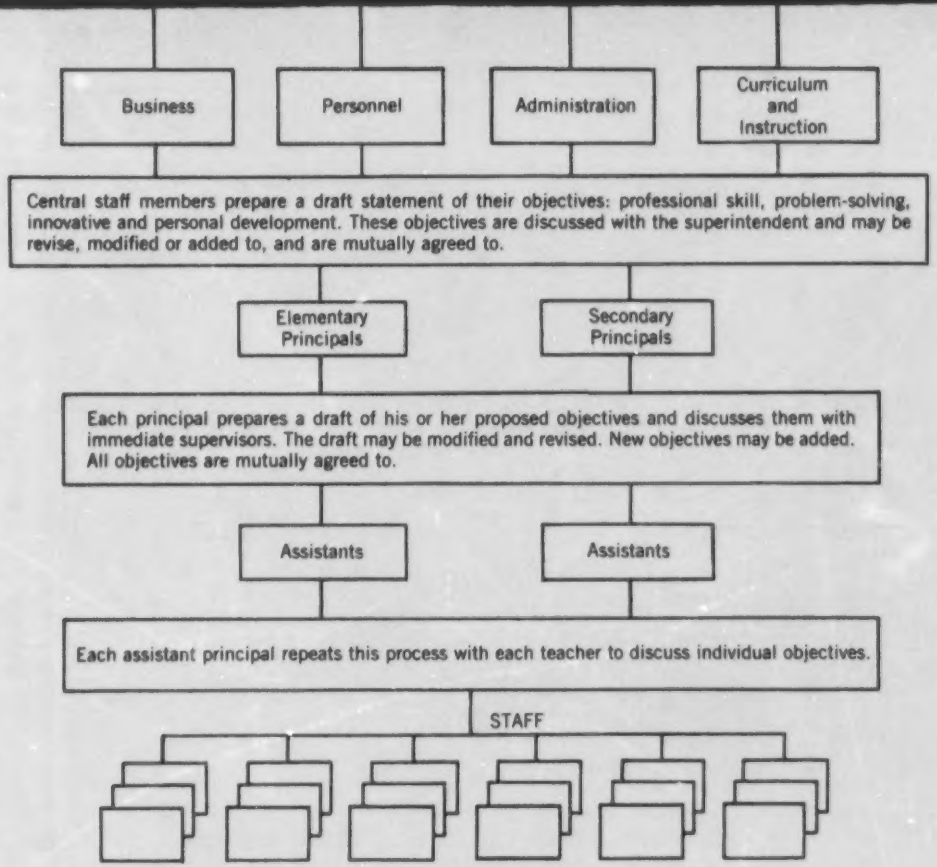
Figure 5 (p. 46) indicates the sequential steps for developing appropriate objectives according to the tenets of MBO (Lewis, 1973, p. 58–59).

The benefits of setting objectives come not just from the act itself, but also from the activities that must occur to ensure achievement. Killian (1968) offers the following guidelines as schools move from setting objectives to attaining objectives:

1. Objectives should be clearly stated, in writing.
2. Objectives that require supporting information should be accurately and

Figure 5.
The Sequential Steps for Setting Objectives in an MBO System


Initiate
Needs Assessment
Study
Superintendent discusses needs assessment study with Board of Education to get direction and guidance for setting proposed long-range objectives.
Board of Education reviews and discusses Superintendent's proposed objectives. New objectives may be added. Proposed objectives may be modified, revised or deleted. All objectives are mutually agreed to.
Superintendent makes presentation to staff: Where are we presently? If we do nothing differently, where will we be in 3 or 5 years? Is that satisfactory? Where would we like to be? What would we like to be? What must we do to get there?
Superintendent schedules meeting with individual staff members to discuss objectives.


Business
Personnel
Administration
Curriculum and Instruction
Central staff members prepare a draft statement of their objectives: professional skill, problem-solving, innovative and personal development. These objectives are discussed with the superintendent and may be revise, modified or added to, and are mutually agreed to.
Elementary Principals
Secondary Principals
Each principal prepares a draft of his or her proposed objectives and discusses them with immediate supervisors. The draft may be modified and revised. New objectives may be added. All objectives are mutually agreed to.
Assistants
Assistants
Each assistant principal repeats this process with each teacher to discuss individual objectives.
STAFF

fully explained to each employee who has a responsibility for achieving them.

3. All administrators and teachers of the school district should understand how they and their area of responsibility fit into the total objectives of the school system.
4. Each educator should be able to determine how his or her personal goals can be satisfied through the achievement of the school organizational goals.
5. Motivation must be applied and maintained at all times to ensure that maximum effort is being exerted to achieve the school system's gains.
6. Administration's concern must be given to timing; logistics; flexible, adequate checkpoints; and the adjustment of the action plan in pursuit of the ultimate objectives.
7. Educational goals should be broken down into sub-goals and sub-sub-goals until they have meaning to all personnel.
8. Allowances must be made for revising, modifying, or even discarding goals if circumstances change after the goal has been set.
9. Comprehensive plans must be set in motion and must be redefined and modified until the second system's goal and the personal goals of each educator have reached an effective balance.

Clearly, the major emphasis of MBO is on production rather than procedures. As Bolton (1980) suggests, this is true in the sense that major decisions in planning are related to desired outcomes and how measurement will occur in relation to these outcomes. Although procedures are discussed (see Richie, 1976, for information on performance "contract" writing), the evaluator's major function is not to tell the specialist what procedures to use but rather to make sure that the outcomes are compatible with school district goals and that the procedures will not undermine organizational goals.

From the perspective of our discussion of various goal-setting models, MBO is potentially the most restrictive of our examples. The nature of the goals and the teacher's flexibility in setting them are limited by the narrowed range of acceptable objectives growing out of the district's goals and the supervisor's goals. The emphasis on measurable and observable objectives would also seem to limit both the range of the objectives and the type of measurement activities available. One of the most frequent arguments against MBO has been the difficulty of implementation. MBO requires that considerable training be provided and that adequate amounts of time be available for staff to establish objectives. McGrew (1971) indicates that a supervisor should allow approximately 8 to 12 hours for the pre-conferencing leading up to establishing an MBO contract. Thus, while MBO clearly contains the positive elements of goal setting and can provide a very useful planning model, the techniques and procedures inherent in MBO do not transfer easily into a practical teacher evaluation system.

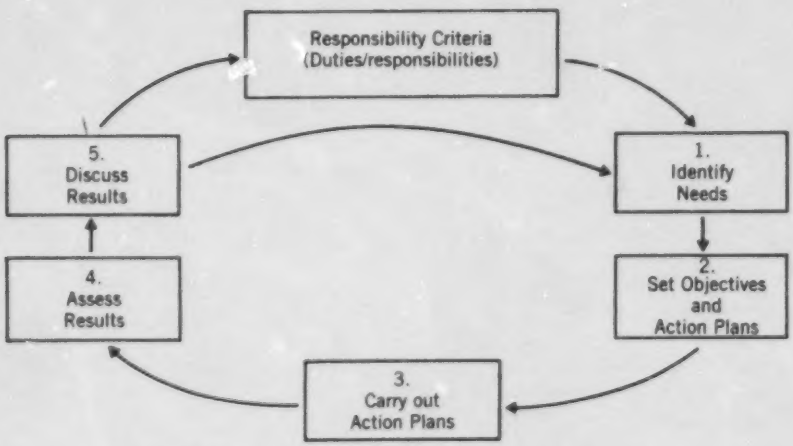
The Performance Objectives Approach

While there are a number of recommended evaluation programs that fit this approach (Armstrong, 1973; Iwanicki, 1981), the originator and driving force behind it is George Redfern. The major push for the use of goal setting in teacher evaluation came in Redfern's classic book, *How to Appraise Teaching Performance* (1963). His model, which has been updated and refined, serves as the basis for this description of the performance objectives approach.

Redfern (1980, p. 1) indicates that the most useful personnel evaluation program will:

1. Engender cooperative efforts between the person being appraised and the one(s) doing the evaluating
2. Foster good communication between the parties
3. Put premiums on identifying what needs improving, planning how to achieve the needed improvements, and determining how the results will be evaluated
4. Promote professional growth and development of the person being appraised
5. Stress the importance of evaluators becoming insightful and skilled in the art of evaluating
6. Make a commitment to the proposition that the bottom line is greater effectiveness in the teaching/learning/supervising process.

Figure 6. The Performance Objectives Model



The performance objectives approach is based on the concept that evaluatee and evaluator jointly establish work objectives, agree on well-established action plans, and measure accomplishment in terms of outcomes and results. Figure 6 provides a picture of the performance objectives cycle as envisioned by Redfern (Redfern, 1980, p. 14).

Steps of the Performance Objectives Model

The POA is seen as a cyclical process that goes on continuously as Step 5, the discussion of results, becomes Step 1, the identification of needs. A closer look at each of the steps in the cycle provides a good perspective on the basic structure of goal–setting models.

Responsibility criteria. According to POA advocates, a prerequisite for any good evaluation must be a clear and comprehensive definition of the duties and responsibilities of each position. It is necessary that the expectations for all positions be spelled out in detail. Figure 7 provides an example of a set of responsibility criteria for a classroom teacher's position that is espoused by Redfern (1980, p. 21–23).

Figure 7. Responsibility Criteria (Teachers)

100—Planning and Organizing

- 101—Makes short- and long-range plans
- 102—Correlates individual objectives with school and district goals
- 103—Adheres to principles of growth and development in planning
- 104—Plans appropriate sequence of skills
- 105—Has an ongoing program to diagnose and assess needs and progress of individual students
- 106—Plans for individual differences
- 107—Involves students in planning
- 108—Encourages student leadership and participation in decision making
- 109—Adjusts physical environment to accommodate variety in learning situations
- 110—Cooperates with others in planning daily schedule
- 111—Manages time efficiently
- 112—Organizes well
- 113—Keeps accurate records
- 114—Is attentive to conditions that affect the health and safety of students
- 115—Organizes work so that substitute teachers can function with a minimum of loss of learning for students
- 116—Other (specify)

200—Motivating Learners

- 201—Motivates by positive feedback, praise, and rewards
- 202—Is responsive to the needs, aptitudes, talents, and learning styles of students
- 203—Develops learning activities that are challenging to students
- 204—Provides opportunities for student expression in music, drama, and other artistic forms

205—Stimulates students to participate in class discussions and activities
206—Generates a sense of enthusiasm among students
207—Helps students experience social and intellectual satisfactions
208—Relates achievement in school to life outside it
209—Other (specify)

300—Relationships with Students

301—Collects pertinent ..ıformation about students and maintains the confidentiality of it
302—Shows concern for students as individuals
303—Counsels students individually and in groups
304—Promotes an open atmosphere, enabling students to express their opinions
305—Helps students develop positive self-concepts
306—Encourages students to define realistic goals for themselves
307—Is sensitive to the career needs of students
308—Shows concern for students who have personal problems or handicaps
309—Encourages students to strive for high achievement
310—Enables students to make worthwhile contributions in class
311—Utilizes the resources of pupil-personnel-staff services
312—Makes self available for conferences with students
313—Guides students in the observance of democratic principles
314—Promotes positive behavior patterns for students
315—Manages behavior problems on an individual basis
316—Has good rapport with students
317—Treats causes, rather than symptoms, of situations that produce discord
318—Is consistent and fair in dealing with students
319—Shows warmth and understanding in dealing with students
320—Shares concerns regarding students with colleagues and parents
321—Other (specify)

400—Utilizing Resources

401—Is aware of available resources
402—Uses a variety of available resources
403—Uses physical school environment (both building and grounds) to support learning activities
404—Adapts available resources to individual needs of students
405—Uses the services of specialists available in the selection and utilization of resources
406—Uses equipment and materials efficiently
407—Other (specify)

500—Instructional Techniques

501—Encourages students to think
502—Uses a variety of teaching techniques
503—Uses a variety of instructional materials
504—Varies opportunity for creative expression
505—Helps students apply their experiences to life situations
506—Conducts stimulating class discussions
507—Encourages the development of individual interests and creative activities
508—Uses appropriate evaluative techniques to measure student progress
509—Assists students to evaluate their own growth and development
510—Provides opportunities for students to develop leadership qualities
511—Enables students to share in carrying out classroom activities
512—Communicates with students individually and/or in groups
513—Shows flexibility in carrying out teaching activities

514—Creates an atmosphere of mutual respect between students and teacher
515—Enables students to learn how to work independently and in groups
516—Promotes group cohesiveness
517—Uses feedback information skillfully
518—Monitors the progress of students
519—Other (specify)

600—Professional Growth and Responsibility

601—Participates in the development and implementation of school policies and procedures
602—Maintains good rapport with colleagues
603—Keeps self up to date in areas of specialization
604—Takes advantage of inservice education opportunities
605—Participates in school and systemwide committees
606—Assists in out-of-class activities, including student management
607—Shares ideas, materials, and methods with professional colleagues
608—Shares in the evaluation of the effectiveness of educational programs
609—Consults with previous teachers, team leaders, department heads, consultants, and specialists to improve the teaching-learning process
610—Interprets school programs to parents and to the community as opportunities occur
611—Other (specify)

700—Relationships with Parents

701—Gets parents to assist with school activities
702—Encourages parents to visit the classes of the children
703—Conducts constructive parent conferences
704—Interprets learning programs to parents
705—Stresses a positive approach in parent relations
706—Maintains confidentiality in relations with parents
707—Other (specify)

Identify needs. Using the responsibility criteria, the teacher and the supervisor cooperatively identify the status of the teacher's current performance (Redfern, 1980, p. 24). The process of identification and discussion is used to determine the number and the nature of objectives or "targets" to be established (Redfern, 1963).

Set Objectives and Action Plans. The objectives and the action plans are used as the means to achieve desired outcomes (meet the "needs" identified in the previous step) (Redfern, 1980, p. 24–28). At the time the performance objectives are developed and agreed upon, it is necessary to also discuss and agree on the actions and the efforts to be taken to attain the objectives. It is advisable to have some form on which each objective and the agreed upon action plan can be written so that both teacher and supervisor understand what is to be done, the outcome desired, and the method of measurement that will be used to determine whether the objective has been attained. Figure 8 is an example of such a form.

Figure 8. A Form for Listing a Performance Objective and its Action Plan

FORM C (Separate Form C for each objective) OBJECTIVE/ACTION PLAN Teacher _____ Adm./Supv. _____

Evaluatee: _____ Position: _____

Evaluator: _____ Position: _____

School Year: _____ Date: _____

Number of Descriptor: _____

Objective: Be explicit. State desired outcome and method of measuring results.

Action Plan: State steps or activities that will be conducted to achieve the objective. Also indicate approximate date when each will be completed.

ASSESSMENT OF RESULTS: (To be completed by Evaluatee and reviewed by Evaluator.)

Check—*Objective was:*
___ Fully Achieved
___ Partially Achieved (*)
___ Not Achieved (*)

Reviewed by Evaluator:
___ Concur with Evaluatee's Assessment
___ Don't concur (*)

(*) Explanations required; use separate sheet

Note: Attach Form Cs to Summative Evaluation Report (Form D). COPIES: Original to Evaluatee; Copy to Evaluator.

Carry Out Action Plans. The plan of action is composed of those activities that the teacher and the supervisor have decided are the most appropriate for meeting the objective (Redfern, 1980, p. 29). It is assumed that the performance targets have been carefully established and that both parties understand their roles and responsibilities in trying to accomplish the target. With proper planning, the teacher should be able to proceed independently during the year.

Monitoring Procedures. Once the details of the plan of action are understood and agreed upon, the process of implementation should get under way (Redfern, 1981, p. 30). Basic to the plan of action is the monitoring of the teacher's performance. The monitoring process is most helpful when very precise performance objectives have been developed and have the capability of reasonable quantitative measurement, which makes monitoring much more relevant. Monitoring techniques are designed primarily to collect relevant data without making assessments as to the quality of performance.

Assess Results. Evaluation is focused primarily on the extent to which the performance objectives have been achieved (Redfern, 1980, p. 32–35). This does not preclude, however, the assessment of overall accomplishment. The teacher and the supervisor must understand the basis for assessment. The mechanics of the evaluation should be clearly stated. All evaluation forms should be understandable. The timetable should be known by all. Redfern's recommended form for listing the objectives and the action plans (Figure 8) has a place at the bottom for indicating the results of the assessment of the performance objective. There is space for both the teacher and the evaluator to give their assessments. Thus both teacher and evaluator participate in determining the success of the performance objectives. In addition to this assessment, it is necessary to assess overall performance and to record the assessments on a Summative Evaluation Report. Figure 9 is an example taken from Redfern (1980, p. 35). These assessments are made by the supervisor without the involvement of the teacher. If they are to be of most use, the supervisor needs to explain all less-than-satisfactory ratings. Indications of personnel actions called for as a result of the assessments can also be indicated in the comments section. Thus, while the monitoring activities described in the previous section are designed to gather formative evaluation data for use with the teacher, both parties must understand that a final summative evaluation will be made and that all data relevant to the teacher's overall performance can and will be used to make the final ratings.

Figure 9. A Sample of a Summative Evaluation Report

FORM D

SUMMATIVE EVALUATION REPORT

CHECK:
____ Teacher
____ Admins.

Evaluatee _____ Position _____

Evaluator _____ Position _____

School Year _____

ASSESSMENT OF OVERALL PERFORMANCE (Only Evaluator assesses overall performance.) ASSESSMENT KEY: EE = Exceptionally Effective, with commendation; E = Effective; NS = Needs Strengthening; U = Unsatisfactory. (The latter two ratings require explanation in COMMENTS section.)

FOR TEACHERS:	ASSESSMENT
100—Planning and Organizing	
200—Motivating Learners	
300—Relationships with Students	
400—Utilizing Resources	
500—Instructional Techniques	
600—Professional Growth and Responsibility	
700—Relationships with Parents	

FOR ADMINISTRATORS:	ASSESSMENT
100—Organization and Administration	
200—Communications Management	
300—Personnel Management	
400—Management of Students	
500—Management of Instruction	
600—Management of Services	
700—Management of Facilities	
800—Financial/Business Management	
900—Professional Competencies and Improvement	

COMMENTS:
(If more space is needed, use reverse side)

SIGNATURES:

Evaluatee _____ Date _____

Evaluator _____ Date _____

(Signatures do not necessarily imply agreement, only that process was completed.) COPIES: Original—Central Office; Copy for Evaluatee and Copy for Evaluator.

Discuss Results. Most supervisors feel that talking with the teacher about job performance is perhaps the most important part of the entire process (Redfern, 1980, p. 34–39). Preparation for a conference is absolutely necessary. It need not be difficult or time-consuming, providing the supervisor has done a good job throughout the year of collecting as much performance data as possible, making sure adequate help was provided, and keeping adequate records of all contacts. The conference can include such things as:

Discussion of long- and short-range goals and objectives
Recognition of good work
Mutual exchanges of suggestions for improvement
Selection of top priority job tasks or targets
Clarification of the responsibilities of both parties
Correction of misinformation and misunderstanding
A myriad of other topics that may seem important.

The final conference of the evaluation activity will likely yield some ideas for further action, and some follow-up will be required. In many cases this final discussion can serve as the pre-conference for the next evaluation cycle in that needs are identified and performance objectives and action plans are set. Thus the cycle and continuous nature of evaluation become a regular part of the process.

Advantages and Disadvantages of POA

POA puts a much greater emphasis on instructional improvement and the process of instruction than does MBO. Even though MBO disciples argue that the improvement of instruction is their primary focus, the fundamental beliefs, activities, and procedures of POA seem much more compatible with the concept of instructional improvement.

Still, there are some aspects of POA that detract from its complete application in local settings. The insistence on the established performance objectives having to come from the list of responsibility criteria (job description) prevents the teacher and the supervisor from having the full flexibility that allows them to truly address unique teacher needs. Anything that creates a delimiting influence on the supervisor-teacher relationship would seem to be noncomplementary to improved instruction. While it is obviously necessary to expect teachers to address important concerns as they work on their performance within an evaluation/supervision system, stating parameters for goal setting implies a significant lack of trust in the ability and willingness of the supervisor and teacher to set relevant and important goals. This lack of trust can permeate a system and lead to poor attitudes toward the entire evaluation

process. The importance of teacher and supervisor attitude in the development of effective evaluation systems has already been clearly documented.

The form that Redfern recommends for the summative rating of overall performance seems an unnecessary and noncomplementary requirement (see Figure 10). The concept of a summative evaluation is not the issue here as much as how it is presented. This form, as well as similar ones used in POA systems, is just a sophisticated version of a rating scale. As discussed under Commonality 1, this seems like a totally unnecessary requirement to force on supervisors. The task of building a supportive, collegial relationship between teachers and supervisors is difficult enough without forcing supervisors to make rating judgments on general criteria that are virtually never used. The discussion of how supervisor and administrator behavior might be separated, which is presented under Commonality 2, seems to offer a much more practical and realistic way of dealing with overall performance assessment.

While there is less emphasis on the use of empirical or traditional measurement techniques in assessing the attainment of the performance objectives in POA systems than in MBO systems, there is still an implicit assumption that typical measurable objectives are required. The arguments for and against the use of specific behavioral objectives in looking at both teacher and student behavior are well documented. (See Popham, 1971, and Millman, 1981, for supporting arguments for behavioral objectives; see Glass, 1974, for an example of the arguments against reliance on behavioral objectives.) Regardless of which side of this argument one accepts, experience suggests that in the real world of teacher evaluation, emphasis on specific and traditionally measurable objectives has led to the development of countless inane and irrelevant objectives by teachers. In order to meet the standards of acceptability for goals in most POA and MBO systems, teachers and supervisors end up setting mundane, easily countable, easily reached goals that have virtually no impact on instructional improvement. Nothing has contributed more to the deterioration of goal-setting systems than the setting of low–quality goals that ultimately erode the credibility of the entire process.

It has long been a standing joke in many districts that use goal-setting systems requiring "measurable" objectives that teachers are desperate for their supervisors to move or resign so that they can recycle some of their old goals. They feel so limited by the notion of setting measurable goals that they literally run out goals they feel they can safely set. While this is clearly not the concept that Redfern, Iwanicki, or the other proponents of POA have in mind, many of the publications dealing with the explication of POA-type systems give very little attention to the form

or format of the objectives and the concept of "measurable" that might be used. This is an issue districts must face if they are to expect teachers and supervisors to deal with the full range of activities that occur under the heading of classroom instruction.

The Practical Goal-Setting Approach

As suggested at the beginning of this chapter, all three approaches share certain common elements. As in the other two approaches, in PGSA there is a clear attempt to focus teacher-supervisor activities through a goal-setting process. The PGSA would seem to be the next step in viewing teacher evaluation in a more practical and less structured manner. While the concept of the importance and the need for the continuous assessment of teacher performance is still recognized in PGSA, there is a definite effort to more effectively match realistic views of what teacher evaluation can be and what it need not be. Many of the concerns raised about MBO and POA are being addressed by those districts moving toward adoption of this approach to goal setting.

A set of beliefs about supervisors, teachers, and teaching is basic to the use of PGSA. First of all, the primary reason for developing or altering a teacher supervision/evaluation system is to help people improve their teaching skills. As such, the major reason for setting goals is to allow supervisor and teacher the chance to establish a narrow, more workable focus for their efforts. Viewing supervisors and teachers realistically, it is unlikely that either group is going to be able to commit significant amounts of additional time to the supervision process. Redfern indicates the use of the performance objectives approach should account for approximately 40 percent of a supervisor's time (Redfern, 1980, p. 9). In view of the data about how principals spend their time and are likely to continue to spend their time (Krajewski, 1978), this estimate seems impractical. Experience suggests that in moving to new evaluation procedures that require considerably more time and energy, supervisors and teachers are seldom told what activities and responsibilities may be dropped in order to provide the additional time. Rather, the additional time is always viewed as an add-on to what they are already doing. Many potentially effective systems have failed because they placed unrealistic demands on the time and resources of the people involved in the system. Consequently, PGSA attempts to focus on improving the quality of the time spent between supervisor and teacher rather than the amount.

Those districts that have developed effective evaluation programs have identified the major focus for their system and have carefully constructed the policies, procedures, and processes to complement that

focus (see Commonalities 1 and 2). Clearly, that focus has been on formative evaluation rather than summative. These different perspectives have a profound influence on the way goals are established and on the relationship between the supervisor and the teacher. The clear identification of an instructional improvement focus also has implications for a number of important questions that are continuously raised by supervisors and teachers with regard to the setting of goals. How many goals should be set? What do goals look like? How do we measure them? Must they always be remedial? The answers to these questions are extricably tied to the focus of the system and to the type of evaluation model or approach selected.

Goal Setting in PGSA: What are appropriate goals? What kind of goals are most important? What kind of goals are most worthwhile? These questions are almost always among the first ones asked after supervisors and teachers find out they are going to be required to set goals. MBO and POA systems partially address these questions by putting limitations on the kinds of goals that can be set. (In MBO they must be subsets of supervisors and/or district goals; in POA they must come from the preestablished set of responsibility criteria). These delimiting requirements do not really address the issue of worthwhileness. Basic to the adoption of a practical goal-setting approach is a belief that the most effective evaluation systems allow the supervisor and teacher maximum flexibility in determining the most appropriate goals for each situation. While the actual nature of the goals can be left open, districts have found it valuable to provide their people with some type of framework for prioritizing among the most frequently established types of goals.

In general, there are four categories of goals that teachers and supervisors set in normal goal-setting situations. The categories are listed from lowest to highest priority. Obviously, situational conditions could allow a goal or goals from even the lowest category to be the most appropriate at any given time. Under "normal" circumstances, however, these priorities should be considered as goals are set. The prioritization is based on the idea of trying to produce the greatest dividends for the time spent between supervisor and teacher. The key, as discussed previously, is to produce a higher incidence of quality time between the two parties. The types of goals and examples of each are as follows:

I. Organizational or Admini trative Goals
   A. Improve my professional image by dressing in a more appropriate manner and by taking more care with my personal hygiene.
   B. Arrive at schooi at least 20 minutes before the first bell.

C. Increase my involvement and interaction with other members of the staff.
D. Gain an increased awareness of board policy, particularly as it applies to teaching the district's required curriculum.
E. Increase my contact and interaction with the parents of my students at least 50 percent during the second semester.

Placing these types of goals as the lowest priority is not intended to negate their importance, but more to reinforce their inappropriateness in a supervisory process focused on classroom instruction. As indicated under Commonality 3, these issues should be discussed from an administrative posture, and problems in this area dealt with as they occur. As much as possible, administrative and organizational concerns should be kept separate from situations where the administrator needs to be able to develop a more cooperative, collegial relationship. Goals of this type should be set only when a problem is so severe or of such a recurring nature that classroom instruction is significantly affected, or serious disciplinary measures against the teacher are imminent.

II. Program Goals
A. Review and make appropriate changes in the seventh-grade language arts program.
B. Introduce the new reading series to the fast group in second grade.
C. Revise the contemporary American writer's unit for my advanced literature class.
D. Construct new thematic units for fifth-grade social studies.
E. Work on increasing articulation between the junior and senior high science programs.

While the importance of program goals by teachers cannot be denied, there would appear to be a variety of ways these kinds of goals can be worked on separately by the supervision/evaluation system (for instance, in curriculum committees, articulation groups, or department or grade-level meetings). Consequently, goals set by teachers that involve curriculum or program matters would have a lower priority. Many teachers like to set program goals. The feeling is that manipulation of materials, program objectives, and curriculum guides and requirements are somewhat remote from them and thus are much less threatening. Since the major purpose of an evaluation is to help people improve their own individual teaching skills, allowing teachers to rely on program–type goals misses the point of instructional improvement.

III. Learner Goals
   A. At least 80 percent of my students will be able to work correctly at least 80 percent of the problems on the long-division test.
   B. The students will be able to demonstrate their ability to write a descriptive essay.
   C. The students will show an increased appreciation of the American free enterprise system.
   D. My fifth-grade students will be able to identify the Presidents of the United States by October 15.
   E. At least 80 percent of the students in my blue reading group will be reading at grade level by May 15.

Certainly learner goals provide the opportunity to measure more accurately how well the teacher met a pre-established goal. However, the ends orientation of this type of goal setting has less to do with the means or process of instruction. While learner goals are appropriate at times, using the framework for prioritizing goals prevents them from receiving the highest priority. Setting and trying to meet learner goals emphasizes time spent on specific situations and conditions that have a tendency to change from year to year. Changes in textbooks, grouping practices, building design, teacher transfers, curriculum guides, and so on, can alter situations to such a degree that learner goals worked on this year would have no carryover value at all. While these types of goals would be fine for certain situations, they potentially pay lower dividends over time. Thus, they must be given a slightly lower priority. This is clearly an arguable point, and one that each district should face as local guidelines are provided to teachers and supervisors regarding the expectations of the goal-setting activity.

IV. Teacher Goals
   A. Work on techniques for increasing the amount and quality of student-teacher interaction.
   B. Work on altering my questioning style for the different ability levels in my classroom.
   C. Increase my enthusiasm by using more overt physical actions (voice, gesture, facial expression, movement, etc.)
   D. Following the Hunter method, work on a more appropriate sequence for my daily lessons, especially checking for understanding and the use of guided practice.
   E. Spend additional time monitoring the success rate of my students on both guided and independent practice seatwork; work toward providing materials that allow students to operate at an approximately 75 percent success rate.

These types of goals seem to offer the best chance for more personal involvement on the part of the teacher since they focus specifically on the teacher's behavior rather than on curriculum matters or on student behavior. Teaching goals also allow supervisors and teachers to take advantage of the considerable advances being made in research on teaching. Goals built around common sense views of teaching—as encouraged by recent teacher effectiveness research (Denham and Lieberman, 1980) and the work of Madeline Hunter (1976)—would seem to provide an opportunity for supervisors and teachers to spend their time working in areas where there is reasonable support for the goals having direct impact on student learning. (See Commonality 5 for an expanded discussion of this idea.)

Teaching goals attempt to deal with noncontent, specific teaching skills that most often cross subject area lines, grade-level considerations, and so forth. In this way, many of the situational variables that change so rapidly for teachers (students, texts, curriculum guides, expectations) are partially controlled by emphasizing general teaching skills that are beginning to emerge from current research. The assumption is that an improved skill level in a general teaching behavior will stay with a teacher, just like skill in riding a bicycle. Every student ever taught by that teacher can potentially benefit from a single supervisory experience. Thus the potentially high dividends gained in relation to the time spent setting and working on a teaching goal justifies giving the highest priority to teaching goals.

One other point about goal setting using the PGSA is the need for supervisors and teachers to accept the notion that not all goal setting must be remedial. This is a problem that has existed since goal setting became a common practice in education. In many respects, the attitude that all goals must be directed at weaknesses or problem areas stems from strong MBO orientations and, to a considerable extent, from common practices in evaluating administrators in which goal setting erodes into a problem-solving exercise. Goals in effect become lists of problems that must be solved in order for the teacher to be satisfactorily evaluated. In order to have the kind of flexibility that practical goal-setting approaches advocate, supervisors and teachers should have the option of setting a goal that may not be a problem or a weakness for a teacher. It may be a skill or an area of interest that the teacher and the supervisor feel might be interesting, challenging, or useful to other teachers or to the school. Examples would include:

1. Learning more about the impact of the Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction (ECRI) approach as developed by Ethna Reid so that I could train other teachers in the district in this proven method of

increasing reading achievement.

2. Studying the concept of curriculum mapping and its implications for this district.

3. Gaining information about usefulness of programs dealing with stress and burnout.

These examples bear some resemblance to the program goals that were earlier given a lower priority. The major difference would be in the intent of the goal. If a goal is being suggested because it is less personal and thus less threatening to a teacher, then it should be given a lower priority. But if it is being suggested from what the supervisor perceives as a genuine interest or desire to gain knowledge or skills in order to benefit students, other staff, or the district, then it can assume a high priority.

As they probably should be, most goals are established around classroom–related problems and concerns. But having the ability to set other types of goals is an important way to illustrate to a staff that a district is sincere in its commitment to foster growth in areas that are of special concern or interest to the teacher.

The concept of offering some prioritization on goals directly addresses how many goals should be set. If, for example, instructional improvement is the primary purpose of evaluation, and a system has been established to complement that purpose, then the question of how many goals is less important than is the quality of the goals that are set. If the priorities are followed, a single goal is often satisfactory.

Measurability of Goals: The measurability question is of primary concern to staff when they are first introduced to goal setting. Many schools that have attempted to move to goal setting systems, particularly after years of common law practices, find that teachers are very uncomfortable with developing "measurable" goals. Goal setting is most frequently viewed in new situations as a procedure introduced by the administration to obtain more "objective" data about teaching so that retention and dismissal decisions can be more easily justified. It should be understood by all involved in teacher evaluation that the concept of "objective" judgments is not really an issue. It is virtually impossible in environments such as the classroom to collect data or make judgments that are traditionally "objective." This is true from both a research and a legal perspective. Again, if an appropriate attitude about evaluation has guided the development of a system, then by such statements as "goals should be measurable" or "all objectives must be observable and measureable," districts should mean that the supervisor and teacher will work out together methods for collecting data about each goal so that together they can make informed judgments about progress toward the goals.

Districts, supervisors, and teachers should accept the view that judgments made by trained, experienced supervisors and teachers are valid measures (Glass, 1974). By not specifying appropriate and realistic definitions of measurement, districts have left supervisors and teachers to assume that traditional and empirical views of measurement were required. This has fostered large numbers of rather mundane and low-priority goals because, in one way or another, they are countable. Fortunately or unfortunately, the nature of teaching and learning does not always promote large numbers of traditionally measurable events, particularly outside of controlled research conditions. If the developers of evaluation systems will accept the concept of reliable judgments from subjective data being in fact valid measures (Kaplan, 1964), then the vista of goals is opened up considerably.

Take, for example, a goal such as "I would like to work on increasing the amount of academic praise I give the students in my classes." Even if this original goal were broken down into action plans—"I will increase my use of student ideas during discussion" or "I will plan for situations designed to offer all the students in the room opportunities for increased success rates"—measurability by traditional terms would still be difficult. Certainly, these things could be observed during the periodic visits a supervisor might make, but these visits only give some data on what occurred during those single instances. Actual measurement on progress toward meeting these goals must be made by the subjective judgments of the teacher and supervisor as they discuss events and activities that occurred most often when the supervisor was not present. This reliance on subjective judgments arrived at by two involved, experienced educators is appropriate and acceptable. The goal was a high-priority teaching goal that can have significant impact on student learning (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974) and was clearly worthwhile. Inappropriate or unclear measurement requirements or definitions cannot be allowed to eliminate these types of broad, yet powerful goals.

Negotiating Goals. All of the goal-setting approaches share the idea of some form of pre-conference in which the supervisor and the teacher work out the final form of the goals (McGreal, 1980). In some instances there is an assumption that, based on some form of self-evaluation, the teacher will write the goals before the conference, then bring them to the session for discussion and approval. Other systems use the conference as a type of working session where the two parties work on the goals together. Whatever the basic expectation for the pre-conference is, there are bound to be times when the supervisor and teacher disagree as to the final goals. MBO and POA type systems try to alleviate some disagreement by setting certain parameters on acceptable goals (MBO goals must

support pre-established district and supervisor goals; POA goals should emerge from the predetermined job description). Practical goal setting allows more flexibility between the supervisor and the teacher. This does provide the potential for more disagreements simply because of the increased encouragement for equal participation that PGSA fosters. In any case, all three approaches do acknowledge, to one degree or another, the importance of goal setting being a mutually developed, cooperative venture. This seems to be particularly true when working with experienced or tenured teachers.

It is the supervisor's responsibility to establish an atmosphere in the conference that will allow the teacher to be an equal participant. On the other hand, it is the teacher's responsibility to contribute to the discussion. Suppose the supervisor asks the teacher what the two of them might work on this year, and the teacher makes such comments as "nothing," or "I have been teaching for 20 years, this seems ridiculous for me to have to do." The supervisor is literally forced to dictate something for the teacher to do—a situation that undermines the process for everyone. To this extent, joint responsiblity should be continually reinforced to supervisors and teachers. Since most districts that move to goal setting are accustomed to traditional common law systems that promoted high-supervisor, low-teacher involvement, supervisors are used to dominating conferences while teachers are conditioned to listen attentively to lists of their strengths and weaknesses, to nod politely, and to vow to work hard until next year's conference. Both parties must learn to alter their standard conference behavior.

If conferences are to proceed constructively, it is important for supervisors to establish ahead of time the strategy they will use to make the conference as productive as possible. In most instances, supervisors know their teachers well enough to have some sense of what they can expect from the teacher with regard to the kinds of goals that they will be offering. PGSA systems encourage supervisors to consider supervision as a long-term process and that a major goal of the pre-conference is to get teachers to see the usefulness of goal setting and to eliminate as much as possible the threatening nature of any evaluation/supervision activity. Basic to PGSA is the idea that the supervisor must be willing to negotiate and possibly compromise on issues that will contribute in the long run to the growth of the teacher.

For example, Supervisor Jones knows that Teacher Smith is already an extremely well-organized person whose teaching is characterized by a high degree of structure and formality. It is the supervisor's feeling that the most appropriate kind of goal for Teacher Smith would be to build and improve the relationship between the teacher and the students, based on

the notion that this form of climate setting would be extremely valuable to the students and increase their learning. However, Jones knows that Teacher Smith is going to walk into that conference and suggest a goal built around the strengths that Smith already possesses. Thus, the issue for Jones becomes the following:

"Do I give in at this point, let Smith set a goal that is directed toward a significant strength, and then try to bargain for a second goal that addresses the problem I feel exists in the classroom? Or, based on my knowledge of this person, should I literally give away this goal for this year in the hopes that the positive attitude that my acceptance will promote in Teacher Smith will allow me the opportunity to suggest a different goal next year? On the other hand, do I feel strongly enough about the tremendous importance of improved climate in Smith's classroom to overrule Smith's preferred goal?"

The supervisor must determine which of these strategies will offer the greatest opportunity for generating a commitment on the part of the teacher. This commitment or sense of involvement on the part of the teacher is the bottom line of the goal-setting process. Without the willingness of the teacher to be an active participant in the process, everyone involved has a tendency to start walking through the activity and merely meeting the requirements of the evaluation procedure. Under normal conditions, the time has passed when supervisors can coerce teachers, particularly tenured teachers, into changing their classroom behavior. While, ideally, there is joint responsibility for establishing a positive environment during goal setting, realistically, the burden is almost exclusively on the supervisor. At the same time, the supervisor's boss must be willing to give the supervisor the flexibility to follow any of the above strategies and to trust that the final decision is the best one to promote growth in the teacher.

PGSA depends on the issues of goal setting being made clear to all involved in the system. One of the things that characterizes the implementation of practical goal-setting approaches in local districts is the inclusion of instructions and information about goal setting as a part of the evaluation instruments. Following is an example of an appendix to the materials that actually make up the evaluation system.

Part B. Goal Setting

Both the supervisor and the staff member have a responsibility to make the goal-setting conference as productive as possible. The supervisor, while still maintaining ultimate responsibility for the final product, must actively involve the staff member in the conference. In most instances the final goals should be the

outgrowth of a cooperative activity. [In working with nontenured staff, the supervisor will normally assume a more directive role in goal setting. With tenured staff the supervisor's major functions would tend to be as a clarifier and a facilitator. Obviously, in those few instances where agreement cannot be reached, the supervisor does maintain final responsibility.] The staff member has the responsibility of coming to the conference prepared to openly and positively discuss those areas that are of particular concern and interest to them. Both parties share the responsibility of approaching the conference and the entire activity with a positive attitude and a willingness to fully participate. By both parties being willing to view the process as a growth oriented, cooperative venture, the success and usefulness of the system is significantly enhanced.

Number of Goals—The number of goals established between the staff member and the supervisor is less important than the form and substance of the goals. In most cases, the number would range between one and four, with the number being determined by the relevancy and the time and energy required.

Goal Priorities—Under normal conditions, it is recommended that goals be established in accordance with their potential impact on student learning. The following priorities should be used as guidelines in determining the appropriateness of goals. However, there are instances when any one of the four types may be relevant and necessary depending on unique conditions.

1. Teaching Goals—goals built around teacher behaviors or worker behaviors that are directly related to student outcomes. The outline of the teacher effectiveness research in the Appendix—part A should serve as the basis for setting teaching goals for the regular classroom teachers. Other instructional support personnel should consider direct job-related activities as falling under this heading.
2. Learner Goals—goals that relate directly to solving a specific learning problem or improving some particular student deficit.
3. Program Goals—goals that relate to curriculum areas, course outlines, articulation activities, materials selection, etc. It is assumed here that there are numerous ways for staff to get involved in programmatic efforts other than using the supervision system.
4. Organizational or Administrative Goals—goals that deal with specific administrative criteria such as listed in the minimum standards description. It is assumed that only in the case of continuing problems in this area would the goal setting procedure be used to help improve the situation.

Measurability of Goals—Part C in the appendix lists the preferred options for measuring progress towards meeting the goal(s). The key to this activity during the conference is a cooperative effort between the supervisor and the staff member in arriving at a method that fits each goal. Certain goals may be so unique that they force the supervisor and staff person to creatively design a method for assessing progress. This is perfectly acceptable. It is to be remembered that subjective judgments made by the supervisor and the staff person after the method(s) have been applied are clearly acceptable forms of measurement. This allows us not to have to confine our goals to only those things that are measurable by traditional, empirical standards.

This typical attachment illustrates one of the basic tenets of PGSA: *Teachers change their behavior only when they want it to change, and they are more likely to want change when they truly understand the nature and purpose of a supervision/evaluation system.* In this way they can see that the attitudes and the experiences within the system are complementary to growth and development. There are no secrets, no training, or no information that are not relevant to everyone. Attachments such as this one serve as constant reinforcers to the purpose of the system.

All three goal setting approaches share the advantages and disadvantages of "contract" approaches (Iwanicki, 1981, p. 226). The primary differences revolve around the nature of the goals, the flexibility provided the supervisor and the teacher, and the prioritization of goals built around increasing the quality of time spent.

PGSA derived its name from the fact that it has emerged as a viable alternative because it does seem to deal more honestly with the practicalities and realities of local schools. The increased flexibility for supervisors and teachers, the less restrictive nature of the goals, their measurability, and their negotiability are both the strengths and weaknesses of PGSA. Decisions about which approach, or adaptations of any or all, should be made on how well a district can match its expectations and attitudes to the procedures and requirements that characterize each approach. If the decision makers in a district feel that the supervisors, teachers, or the community are not ready for the kind of individualization of evaluation that emerges in PGSA, then they should look toward the "tighter" approaches exemplified by MBO and POA.

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COMMONALITY 5:

A Narrowed Focus on Teaching

Regardless of what type of evaluation system a school ultimately decides to use, to be effective it must revolve around looking at and talking about teaching. In this simple fact lies a problem continuously confronted by teachers and supervisors. Basically, both groups learned how to teach in exactly the same way—*by doing it!* Out of this trial-and-error approach to teaching grows a style, a way of teaching, that works for each person. With this personal style comes a set of definitions and a way of looking at teaching that is distinctly individual.

This reliance on on-the-job training to learn how to teach is not intended to be a condemnation of teacher education programs. Most teacher preparation programs do the best they can, given their circumstances. During an approximate four-year span, a teacher education program must offer a two-year dose of university requirements, enough courses to provide a subject matter major, a series of foundation courses and methods courses designed to meet state certification requirements, and a series of classroom involvements, including student teaching. By any perspective, it is a broad coverage experience provided in a short time, which tends to result in a person ready to learn how to teach rather than a person ready to teach. It is not until after the first few years of teaching that teachers truly begin to learn the basics of their profession. Unfortunately, most of this on-the-job training takes place in isolation from an ideal learning environment. Fortunately, the help provided by peers, supervisors, and common sense allows most teachers to develop a functional style that is basically effective.

One of the unsatisfactory side effects of this self-developing style is that individuals develop language and a way of teaching that serves them but provides no common ground for discussion with others. Thus when supervisors observe teachers teach, and when they begin to talk about what they have seen and how they feel about it, they use language and a

perception of teaching that grows out of their own experience. This tends to promote teachers and supervisors literally talking right by each other since each is operating from a framework of teaching that is personally unique. Training supervisors and teachers in the processes involved in a new evaluation system does not give them additional insight into the act of teaching. The majority of administrative training programs do not provide any type of systematic help in gaining knowledge of classroom teaching skills. "What do I look for?" "What things make a difference in the classroom?" "What kinds of goals should I encourage my staff to set?" These are the questions supervisors are increasingly asking and that traditionally have not been answered. It makes no sense to develop a new evaluation/supervision system designed to improve instruction, and then send the supervisors into classrooms armed with the same way of looking at teaching that they have always relied on.

Those districts whose evaluation systems have been viewed effective have, in most cases, decided to adopt some type of narrowed focus on teaching. In other words, some particular perspective on teaching, complete with a set of definitions and language, is presented in a training format to all teachers and supervisors at the same time and in the same manner. Everyone is provided with a starting place, a common ground for looking at and talking about teaching, that is consistent throughout the staff. The concept of developing a consistent view of teaching is perhaps the major innovation to occur in teacher evaluation. Only in the last 15 years has this idea been possible at all and only in the last seven or eight years could districts provide training in teaching with some confidence. The existence of this commonality is a credit to the tremendous increase in the study of teaching that has occurred since the mid 1960s.

Many ways of looking at teaching could serve as the basis for a narrowed focus. The important point is that the school district be able to "sell" the selected teaching focus to all of the staff. To have the best chance of doing this, the adopted focus needs to minimally meet the following criteria:

1. A strong empirical base
2. A close approximation to standard practice
3. A "common sense" orientation
4. Perspectives and skills that are potentially generalizable across subject areas and grade levels

In terms of current teaching research, the focus on teaching that seems to best meet the above criteria as well as the one that has been the most successfully implemented in school districts is based on *a combination of current teacher effectiveness research and portions of Madeline Hunter's work.*

Before reviewing these two views, it seems appropriate to discuss how and why this commonality becomes part of an evaluation system. To this point in the book, we have seen an evaluation/supervision system that places major concern on instructional improvement. The most effective systems are built around a process that emphasizes individual teacher goals that are primarily focused on teaching (see Commonality 4). The discussion, establishment, and review of these goals demand an understanding of important elements of effective teaching and some common and familiar language that addresses the various parts of instruction. The only way to ensure such an understanding exists is to provide all members of the staff with training as a part of the implementation of the new system. *In many respects, the introduction of a narrowed focus on teaching and the continuing education of the staff in instructional skills is the single most important aspect of building a successful evaluation/supervision system.*

In case after case, the presence of this commonality has been the key element in developing the awareness of teaching that is so necessary for getting teachers involved in instructional improvement efforts. Many districts have chosen to include reviews and outlines of current teaching research as an appendix to the regular packet of materials in the district's evaluation procedures and instruments. This inclusion of the teaching focus with the evaluation materials—when combined with continuous staff development directed at practical classroom instructional skills—provides a constant reminder to the staff of the emphasis the system puts on improving personal teaching skills. These procedures also reaffirm the intent of a district to provide an evaluation system designed to help staff improve the quality of instruction through cooperative and professional methods. This activity is extraordinarily valuable to school districts.

A Recommended Focus on Teaching

Current teacher effectiveness research forms the basis for the recommended focus on teaching. In most instances, the teacher effectiveness research is defined as those studies that have tried to link certain teacher behaviors to student achievement. In recent years a number of general reviews on teaching research have been very useful (Rosenshine and Furst, 1971; Rosenshine, 1971; Dunkin and Biddle, 1974; Good, Biddle, and Brophy, 1975; Medley, 1977; Peterson and Walberg, 1979). These reviews have done much in promoting the legitimacy of teacher effectiveness studies. Most of these reviews were compiled and analyzed by researchers writing for other researchers. Consequently, they have not had as much impact on schools as they might had they been written more

practically. This situation seems to be more symptomatic of the natural conservativeness of the researchers than it is of a lack of faith in the potential usefulness of the data. Fortunately, over the last five years, a number of successful training and inservice packages have been generated from the effectiveness research. (Examples would include such things as the TESA program; Evertson and Emmer's work with elementary and junior high teachers; Fitzpatrick's training program for secondary school teachers; the ECRI concept; and various projects associated with the Direct Instruction Program at the University of Oregon.) The brief summary of the effectiveness research presented in this section shares the same perspective as the examples given above—the direct application of current teaching research to improve practice.

Effectiveness research has been chosen as the major focus by most schools because it seems to best conform to the criteria presented earlier:

1. At this point it seems to have a strong and growing research base.
2. Effectiveness studies share a strong surface validity in that most findings parallel accepted practice.
3. There is considerable common sense involved in the recommendations growing from the research.
4. The growing number of studies being done in a variety of settings have produced a consistency of findings that, especially for certain kinds of learning, seem to cross subjects areas and grade levels.

The effectiveness studies, however, are not without controversy, much of which was especially justifiable in the early stages of the research. Initially, the findings were applicable only to low SES students in elementary grades regarding basic skill acquisition in reading and math. Even in the above situations, the data were accused of being suspect because they were almost all correlational and thus subject to all the weaknesses inherent in correlational research. While these arguments were valid at the time, they are much less powerful now. Many of the concerns have been diminished in recent years due to the fact that an increasing number of effectiveness studies have been conducted in junior and senior high schools in various subject areas and in a variety of school settings. Almost all of these recent studies show a continuing consistency in the findings. Most importantly, current effectiveness research is characterized by a significant number of experimental studies that have not in any visible way reversed any correlational findings (Rosenshine, 1982). While there is an obvious need to continue research in this important area, there is now sufficient evidence to support the view of an emergent set of basic teaching skills that can legitimately be introduced to teachers.

This is not to suggest, however, that there is a model for teaching here that must be followed before effective teaching can occur. That would be ridiculous! There is no one best way to teach. To a great extent, teaching is the ability to reach into a bag of tools and pull out those things that allow for the best match of method, content, and students. The more techniques, skills, models, styles, attitudes, etc. that make up that bag of tools, the more effective teacher decisions are likely to be. As Brophy (1979) indicates, we will never have a set of generic teaching skills. However, it does appear that current research is giving us more and better clues about certain behaviors that make up at least a part of effective instruction. The teacher effectiveness research is identifying some basic teaching tools that provide a set of technical fundamentals that need to be considered regardless of the type or level of teaching that is to occur.

While many of the findings of the effectiveness research are interrelated, for discussion purposes the data can be said to roughly fall under three headings: *climate, planning, and management behaviors*. Since it is not the purpose of this book to provide a complete training program, each of the three areas will be discussed only briefly.

Climate

Unless otherwise noted, the following discussion is extrapolated from the following sources:

Dunkin and Biddle (1974)
Good, Biddle, and Brophy (1975)
Bloom (1975)
Hunter (1976)
Peterson and Walberg (1979)
Kerman and Martin-TESA (1980)
Denham and Lieberman (1980)
Cummings (1980)
Brophy and Evertson (1976)
Stevens and Rosenshine (1981)

Teachers have always been taught the importance of classroom climate. Traditionally climate has been communicated as a warm, supportive environment in a classroom in which students feel comfortable and loved—a sort of "womb in the room" notion. It is undeniable that it is important to be nice, considerate, and caring. But these terms, like other similar ones, are difficult to define or to translate into some identifiable teacher practice. Recent studies have begun to produce a series of results that offer a somewhat more tangible definition of climate, which is

complete with recommended behaviors that appear linked in both correlational and experimental studies with student gain. It is suggested that classrooms where gain is consistently higher are characterized by a climate conducive to high levels of involvement on the part of students. *They are classrooms in which all students feel free to take part, comfortable to raise their hands, to take a chance, to get involved.* With the exception of truly gifted or highly motivated students, the average student does not learn much through osmosis. To learn, a student must be an active part of the class. Generally this only happens when the teacher recognizes this fact and plans for it to happen. *This concept of planning for it to happen is the essence of the teacher-centered, structured classroom.* Time and time again an attitude emerges in effective classrooms that says "these kids can learn, but they learn primarily from me and because of me." If there are things that should be happening that help students learn more effectively, then it is the teacher's responsibility to not sit back and hope that an appropriate climate happens naturally. The teacher must plan and structure events in such a way that important outcomes have the chance to occur. Views of classrooms as warm and caring places are not compromised by this perception. Teacher-centered, structured classrooms run by nice people are compatible, not conflicting, places in which to learn.

It is imperative to note the special importance of a focus on climate for junior and senior high school teachers. There is often a feeling among upper grade teachers that climate is an elementary school concept that is not as relevant to secondary school settings. Many middle, junior, and senior high teachers are commited to their subject matter first and to the concept of teaching secondly. Actually there is growing support for the notion that as students progress in grade level, the more important climate becomes to achievement. It is not appropriate for subject matter teachers at any grade level to rely only on the wonderfulness of their material. *Teachers must plan for climate with as much diligence as they plan for the presentation of subject matter.*

Two key terms emerge under this heading—involvement and success—although in a slightly less prominent role, praise and reinforcement are also ingredients in a contemporary definition of climate. All of these terms interact significantly, especially in relation to particular recommended behaviors emerging from the research. Several of these important behaviors include:

Extended Teacher-Pupil Contact. Teachers are constantly reminded of the importance of praise and reinforcement. In many classrooms, however, teachers feel they attend to this matter through their usual responses to students. "Okay," "Yeah," "Alright," "Correct," "Uh

huh," and "Terrific" are just a few of the typical teacher one-worders that comprise the majority of praise students receive. It is essential for teachers to expressly develop verbal habits that provide stronger, more extended teacher praise if it is going to have maximum effect. Too often teachers' short verbal cues become so commonplace that they lose all impact. Evidence suggests that praise, to be effective, must be earned, appropriate, and noticeable. Teachers should provide praise and reinforcement in situations where there can be an extended, more involved contact with the student. For example, during any type of teacher-student verbal interaction (general discussions, review sessions, questioning activities), it is important for teachers to attempt various forms of what Aspy (1973) calls "interchangeable responses," or what Rosenshine and Furst (1971) call "use of student ideas." Interchangeable responses are teacher summations of student statements which are interchangeable with what the student has said. It is a way of showing that the teacher has listened to and understood what the student has said and that it is important and useful. Along the same line, Rosenshine and Furst (1971) indicate five ways of using student ideas during verbal interaction:

1. *Acknowledging* a student's response by literally repeating the answer out loud to the rest of the class.
2. *Modifying* the student's response by putting it into differnt words so that it is more understandable or more appropriate but still conveys the idea originated by the student.
3. *Applying* the student's response to some situation; using it as an explanation for some event or occurrence.
4. *Comparing* the student's response to something in the text, something already discussed, some concurrent similar event.
5. *Summarizing* the responses made by students and using them to draw a conclusion or make a point.

Whether called interchangeable responses or use of student ideas, the concept remains the same: Direct teacher verbal action illustrates to students their importance in the occurrence of events in the classroom. It reinforces the students' understanding that they can get answers right and that the teacher recognizes and values them. This simple act is something that many teachers already do. But, if all other things remain the same, and a teacher increases the occurrence of this type of behavior in the classroom, both correlational and experimental research suggests that it makes a difference.

Directed Questions. Each succeeding year in school teachers experience larger percentages of "emotional dropouts." These are students who are physically present but emotionally nonparticipants. Since 1974 (Brophy and Good), data have identified dramatic differences in who

responds in class and in the behaviors of teachers toward students who respond. With involvement being so important to learning, the teacher must assume responsibility for involving students in the class. One of the few ways a teacher can raise involvement levels is by using more directed questions. That is, the teacher calls directly on a student by name without having first raised the question for a show of hands. This is not to suggest that undirected questions are inappropriate; rather, there is an appropriate perspective the teacher must maintain as to the level of participation being achieved. *The larger the group of nonrespondents in a class, the higher the proportion of directed questions that must be generated.*

The use of directed questions is particularly appropriate early in the school year. A teacher cannot make assumptions about the kinds of experiences students may or may not have had in previous years. A teacher must behave in such a way as to say,

> I don't know where these kids were last year, or where they are from, or who they had as a teacher. I only know that when they walk into *my* room they are going to have the chance to be a real part of this room, to feel free to ask or answer a question, to raise their hand, and to have a legitimate opportunity to succeed. I know this is going to happen because I am going to make it happen.

One way to "make it happen" is to specifically plan questioning activities in the first part of a school year (perhaps through the first nine weeks) that reflect at least a two-thirds to one-third ratio of direct to indirect questions. Depending on the make-up of a class or the type of learning being sought, this ratio would not be inappropriate throughout the year. Again, the recommendation is not intended to discourage undirected questions. It is a reminder that all teachers have dues to pay. Before students can be expected to learn, they must first become a part of the class. They must feel able to participate successfully. Some students have the ability and the self-concept to participate and succeed regardless of the teacher. But the great majority of students at all levels have to have help before they can feel comfortable in becoming involved. The teacher must plan for situations that provide this help. This is a basic teaching skill that crosses grade levels and subject areas. Evidence to support other basic teaching skills is what the effectiveness research has the potential to provide us.

Successful Experiences. The importance of success to learning is a well-researched area. Translating the research into practical action must be a high priority for all teachers. Again the idea of a basic teaching skill seems apparent. There is a clear relationship between achievement gains in average and below-average ability level students and the number of correct answers they give in the classroom. For academically gifted students, there appears to be a relationship between their achievement

and the number of incorrect answers they give in class. The harder bright kids perceive the material to be (incorrect answers), the more they are motivated to learn it. The harder average and below average students think the material is (by giving incorrect responses), the more they feel it is too hard for them. Consequently, for the majority of students it is important to provide the opportunity to get things right. A basic teaching skill that often separates the good teacher from the great one is the willingness to go beyond just providing praise and reinforcement when students respond correctly. Situations and events must be planned and carried out that are designed specifically for giving all the students in the classroom a chance to get answers right and thus earn appropriate praise. This does not mean that teachers have to suddenly teach so much better that students will automatically get more answers right. *It means that most teachers need to learn how to ask easier questions.*

For example, in a directed question activity, it does not make much sense to ask an average or below-average ability student to respond to a high-level question such as, "Bob, compare and contrast the different points of view as to why the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor." The student has been literally set up to give a wrong answer. He could be asked, "Bob, who attacked Pearl Harbor?" This is a low-level, recall question that Bob has a chance to get right. Ralph, who is a bright or highly motivated kid, could be asked the "why" question. He can handle the higher cognitive processes required to answer the question more easily. If Ralph gives an incorrect answer he does not think he is "dumb." Like most bright kids, his first reaction is that there must be a typo in the teacher's key. Is this some form of teacher expectation at work? No! First of all, Bob and the many students just like him already know they are not as smart as the Ralphs in class. They have known it since the second week of first grade when they could identify the difference between red group, blue group, and white group. Fortunately, Bob's self-concept is not measured in relationship to Ralph, only to himself. When Bob correctly identifies who attacked Pearl Harbor, he feels good about it; he does not pass it off as inconsequential because he knew it was only a low-order question! If there is a teacher expectation at work here, it is not one that says, "These kids are too slow or too uncommitted to ever learn, so why should I spend my time on them?" It is an expectation that all children can learn, but first they have to be given an opportunity to prove *to themselves* that they can learn. They must have the chance to get answers right!

This form of recommended behavior must be viewed in the proper perspective. There is a legitimate call for an increased emphasis on teaching higher level thinking skills (Kamii, 1982). Contrary to the belief of some critics, the above recommended behavior is not counter to

critical thinking. Higher level thinking skills cannot be taught to students who are not a part of a class or who have not experienced enough success to have confidence in their ability to learn. Too often teachers have been asked to teach relatively complex ideas without having been given the time, the training, or the encouragement to master those basic teaching skills that must be attended to first.

It must be noted here that other recommended behaviors fall under the general heading of "successful experiences." This section is intended only to provide a flavor of the common sense, basic teaching skill orientation that is possible by focusing on current effectiveness research.

Handling Incorrect Responses. This is another example of a behavior falling under the general heading of climate. In order to build a classroom environment that encourages participation and success, teachers need to promote an attitude that it is no big deal to get answers wrong. This is not to suggest that incorrect answers should not be labeled as incorrect—it is extremely important to students whether an answer is right or wrong. The point is that there are effective ways to provide feedback (Brophy and Good, 1974), which should be a regular part of a teacher's basic skills.

In general questioning situations, a number of important variables must be considered regarding the form of teacher feedback. (For an excellent discussion of questioning and teacher responses to student answers, see Carin, 1971.) When climate considerations are particularly important, a basic rule of questioning is: *When the teacher comes to a student with a question, the teacher should not leave the student until a correct answer has been presented by either the student or the teacher.*

"Bob, who was the first President of the United States?" Bob replies, "Jimmy Carter?" Using a suggestion from Madeline Hunter, the teacher should indicate it is an incorrect answer and state a question the student did answer. "Bob, Jimmy Carter was the thirty-ninth President, and the first President elected from the South since the Civil War." In other words, the student gave a wrong answer, but at least provided a response that answered some question. This is a nice technique if it fits the situation, and is certainly worthy of inclusion in a teacher's repertoire.

Another technique would have the teacher identify a response as incorrect and then (1) rephrase the question, (2) provide some form of re-teaching, (3) provide additional information for the student's use, or (4) probe the student's response for a route to the correct answer. The key here is extended teacher-pupil contact that conveys the message that it was not a crime to give a wrong answer and that the teacher has confidence the right answer can be given. It is a basic teaching skill that says, "I want this student to succeed and I will do whatever I can to provide the chance to do so." When it is clear that a correct answer is not

forthcoming or when the pacing of a lesson demands movement, then it is appropriate for the teacher to supply the answer. (See Brophy and Good, 1974, for the differences in the amount of time teachers are willing to stay with perceived high achievers as opposed to perceived low achievers.) With the possible exception of classes made up of bright or highly motivated students, the teacher should not move on from an incorrect response from one student to another student who can supply the correct answer. Average and below-average ability level students should not be forced to sit there and be continuously reminded that there are always other students who know the answers they miss. It is alright for the teacher to give the answer because the students expect the teacher to know. To give other students the opportunity to succeed, the teacher should ask them different questions. Certainly there are other suggestions for handling student responses (Carin, 1971; Bellon, Bellon, and Handler, 1977), but for building the type of climate that is relevant to achievement, these basic approaches for handling incorrect responses are useful.

More and more data suggest that classroom climate is conducive to increased achievement. This climate does not grow naturally; it is the result of direct teacher intervention applied in a series of planned teacher behaviors. These behaviors seem consistent over different grade levels and subject areas. They do not represent a way of teaching that fits all situations and all kinds of learnings. But they do represent a common language and view of the climate of teaching that can be the baseline from which other behaviors can be built and tested. This is the usefulness of the effectiveness research.

Planning

The discussion in this section, unless otherwise noted, has been extrapolated from the following sources:

Carroll (1963)
Denham and Lieberman (1980)
Russell and Hunter (1977)
Rosenshine (1980)
McGreal (1981)
Rosenshine (1981)

One of the most signficant outcomes of the effectiveness research has been the increased emphasis placed on time as a variable in learning. The use of time is a basic teaching skill that is appropriate in virtually all teaching situations. Like climate, planning for teaching is not an unfamiliar concept. Unfortunately, planning is often viewed in a context that is too narrow. Planning is often equated with lesson plans, concentrating on

just the verbal aspects of teaching. More systematic study of time use is encouraging a concept called bell-to-bell planning. Because time in learning is so important, it is imperative that teachers at all grade levels and in all subject areas begin to maximize the use of their allocated instructional time.

Recent effectiveness studies have provided a much more accurate view of life in American classrooms. The most striking findings of these studies have been concerned with (1) the way time is used by teachers and students, and (2) how much off-task and undirected student time there is in classrooms. For example, it is now estimated that in K-5 classrooms in this country over 70 percent of the average student's day is spent not being directly taught by the teacher. In junior and senior high schools, from 40 to 65 percent of the student's day is spent doing things other than being taught by the teacher. For the purposes of this section, the point is not to evaluate whether these conditions should or should not exist, but to use the figures as partial support for the importance of a more comprehensive view of planning.

These data suggest that viewing planning as the development of a lesson plan for each class may be inappropriate, especially since a typical lesson plan accounts for only about half of the student's time. The average student spends as much or more time in class dealing with activities and events that fall outside normal planning procedures and direct teaching. Most of this student time in class is spent in one of two ways.

First, students are usually given work to do by the teacher when they are not receiving direct instruction. In looking at the percentage figures about student time in classrooms, it seems likely that many students spend more of their time interacting with the teacher's artifacts than with the teacher in person. (An artifact is defined as any of the materials, study guides, question sheets, problem sets, texts or workbooks, quizzes, experiments, and tests that teachers build, copy, borrow, or steal for use by the students.) While teachers spend hours putting together well-conceived lesson plans outlining the way they will present information, they spend virtually no time selecting an artifact to accompany the presentation. The use and development of teacher artifacts is an important basic teaching skill that demands more attention—perhaps through the development of systematic procedures for encouraging and supporting a comprehensive, bell-to-bell concept of planning.

The second use of nondirected time in class is labeled off-task time. To understand off-task time, one needs to know what *on-task* time is. While a variety of terms abound, a working definition of on-task time can be gleaned from the literature: *Time on task is time during which students are directly instructed by the teacher, or are at work on seatwork or*

practice activities directly related to the desired outcomes of the class, and are directly supervised by the teacher.

Being *directly instructed* does not mean just lecture. It is direct instruction in that the teacher is directly involved with techniques that are appropriate to the kind of information being taught, the kind of learning sought, and the type of students. It can involve lecture, recitation, inquiry methods, teacher-led discussions, or any other techniques that teachers use when wanting to present information, ideas, and concepts, or give directions.

The key phrase here is "directly related to the desired outcomes of the class." This is clearly a strong suggestion for drill and practice activities. Several studies have pointed out slightly negative relationships between achievement and motivational or recreational games and activities (Good, Biddle, and Brophy, 1975). Students seem to learn best when they work directly on what they are to learn rather than being involved in games that motivate them to want to learn it. This should not be construed as promoting dull and boring activities. For years creative teachers have been making drill and practice interesting. This concept and the studies that support it offer strong justification for teacher-centered, structured classes that are characterized by bell-to-bell planning that promotes maximum amounts of directed time-on-task activities during allocated instructional time. These are businesslike classrooms run by teachers who consciously provide opportunities for students to have work they can handle, to have high success rates, and to receive noticeable amounts of praise and reinforcement. The BTES study identified a variable labeled academic learning time, which combines time-on-task with high success rates (70 to 80 percent). Academic learning time has proven to be highly related to achievement (Denham and Lieberman, 1980). This sort of success in a classroom will generally only happen when the teacher deliberately plans for all allocated time and consciously directs all class activities as well as the selection of all artifacts on the basis of their direct application to the desired outcomes for the students.

The inclusion of the statement "and are directly supervised by the teacher," is an important ingredient in the emerging definition of time-on-task. Stallings and Kaskowitz (1974) and Stallings and others (1979) have found higher achievement among work groups directly supervised by teachers as opposed to groups working independently. It seems that a good pair of comfortable shoes is a necessary teaching tool. Direct supervision means exactly that, *direct*. The teacher is up and moving among the students providing additional help, checking for understanding, giving individual help or re-teaching, and supplying extended forms of praise and reinforcement. These are all activities that have proven to be extraordinarily important to achievement. Several studies, in fact, have

pointed out a negative relationship between teachers sitting at their desks and student achievement. This direct involvement of the teacher with students at all times is a necessary condition for maximizing on-task time in classrooms.

How prevalent is the amount of time that does not meet the above definition of on-task? In a study of randomly selected middle, junior, and senior high schools in the Midwest, McGreal (1981) found that the *average* length of a period (the time allocated for a class) was 42 minutes in the middle schools, 45 minutes in the junior high schools, and 50 minutes in the high schools. Going into randomly selected classrooms, observers timed various activities that occurred from the beginning to the end of a period. From the opening bell until an on-task activity began averaged seven to nine minutes. The interval between the last on-task activity to the closing bell ran from six to seventeen minutes. In these typical secondary schools, the fewest off-task total minutes observed just at the beginning and end of the period was 13 minutes. This number and all the totals above 13 were occurring in classrooms where the total allocated time was from 35 minutes to 55 minutes. Admittedly, there are a number of variables that need to be considered in analyzing these results, and the study was not done under rigorous standards. However, in presenting and discussing these numbers with thousands of teachers and supervisors, they are received with considerable agreement.

In light of these figures, teachers obviously need to plan for more efficient use of classroom time. As more and more demands have been made on the curriculum, especially at middle and junior high schools, the length of school periods have been shortened to provide for more periods in the day. If, in a period of 35 to 45 minutes, 13 to 20 minutes are wasted, then classroom instruction is cut to an absurdly short time. And shortened periods force teachers to violate recommended sequences for effective lesson design. These time problems are consistent and widespread and demand systematic and continuous examination and discussion. Again, the effectiveness research can provide the common language and the focus for supervisors and teachers to cooperatively address this issue.

In elementary schools (K-5) the amount of on- and off-task time has been more accurately documented. Rosenshine (1980) and Good and Beckerman (1978), among others, have accumulated data showing dramatic variances in the amount of engaged time in elementary classrooms. (Engaged time is the percentage of allocated time spent on-task.) Off-task time in elementary classrooms is almost always directly related to the amount and quality of the teacher's planning. For example, teachers need to make plans for getting students more quickly back on task following transitional time; efficiently moving students from large groups to small groups, and keeping students on task while the teacher works with other

students. Regardless of the kinds of students a teacher has or the type of learning being sought, these time considerations are basic to effective teaching.

Certainly some off-task time is caused by decisions and lack of planning at the building level. The continuous movement in and out of elementary classrooms caused by organizational requirements (out-of-class activities such as physical education, music, title I, and recess) eat into regular allocated time and create transitional and wait time. Effective instructional improvement programs address these problems by focusing both the supervisor's and teacher's attention on classroom and building use of time.

The point of this brief review on time use in classrooms is to illustrate again the usefulness of introducing all staff to the basic concepts emerging from the effectiveness research. Teachers and supervisors armed with the same set of language and definitions regarding such terms as bell-to-bell planning, artifacts, on-task time, engagement rates, transitional time, and wait time have a way of focusing their interaction and goal setting on basic fundamental teaching skills.

Hunter's Steps in Lesson Design

The most successful implementations of a narrowed focus on teaching have utilized—in addition to the effectiveness research—some of the work of Madeline Hunter and her colleagues. The contributions of Hunter to more effective teaching are significant. The recommendations for lesson design discussed here are only part of Hunter's complete program, but are the most widely accepted and the most practical. In many ways these steps reflect characteristics that have made the effectiveness research acceptable to practitioners. They have a strong research base, especially from a learning theory perspective, and they have a great deal of surface validity because they make sense and they parallel accepted practice in schools.

Admittedly, if Russell and Hunter (1977) were describing these steps, they might do it somewhat differently than I. The short description following each of the steps is drawn from an effectiveness research perspective and reflects current research findings. A more complete introduction and discussion would be necessary as a part of the training program when the teaching focus would be introduced to the members of a school district. But for the purposes of this book, the following short perspectives must suffice.

While a successful lesson can be developed and carried out without explicitly following all the steps or the sequence, these steps are an

appropriate framework for planning virtually any type of lesson at any grade level and in any subject area. In this sense, these steps build a teaching focus around certain key teaching skills that are applicable in almost all situations.

The assumption here is that before teachers begin to plan for a particular lesson, they will already have determined the primary objectives of the lesson. Once that has been done, the following steps should be used to design the most effective lesson possible to meet those objectives.

Steps 1 and 2: Anticipatory Set and Statement of Objectives

It is important to get students "ready to learn." The first minutes of a class are particularly valuable because students must be brought onto task in a way that encourages mental readiness for what is to come. One particularly recommended practice is to get students started as quickly as possible on some form of review of the previous day's work. Both Good and Grouws (1979) and Emmer and Evertson (1979) have gathered data showing this type of opening review to be effective. A second way is noteworthy because it combines steps one and two. It is important for students to know where they are going in class, the relevance of what they are learning, and to have a sense of continuity. Very often, average and below-average ability students view each school day and each new lesson as an independent act. They do not always see the relationship between today's work and what they did yesterday and certainly not what they will be doing in class tomorrow. They lack the ability to independently see the big picture. Part of the concept of a teacher centered classroom is that the teacher takes responsibility for providing students with a sense of continuity in their learning. An effective technique that has emerged from the literature involves the teacher's use of verbal moves that provide important cues for the students. For example, the consistent use of *advanced organizers* can inform students of what is coming as well as tie events together. For example:

> "What we are going to do today is. . . ."
>
> "Yesterday, as you remember, we talked about . . . Now today I intend to show that. . . .
>
> "The reason we want to look at this is because. . . ."
>
> "I want to take a few minutes and review what we did yesterday, because I think it will help give you a feeling about what the next logical step should be."

At the same time, it is necessary to build in verbal moves during the presentation of a lesson to provide benchmarks or clues as to what is

particularly important. The use of structured comments as an automatic part of teaching helps produce such clues. Examples of structured comments would include:

"This is an important point, and I think you should write it down."

"This idea is central to our understanding of the concept."

"That is an excellent point and one I think gives us the reason it is important that we study this."

"I am not necessarily saying this is going to be on the test, but I would remember it if I were you."

The use of *summary and review statements* are other important teacher moves that help students put information into perspective. Some verbal statements that typify these techniques include:

"Let's review what we just talked about."

"The important things you need to keep in mind are. . . ."

"Putting together all the things we have talked about, we can conclude that. . . ."

"Let's take a few minutes and review what we have just talked about. Then I will show you how it relates to what we will be doing tomorrow."

These first two steps are reminders for the teacher to get the lesson started appropriately. The teacher is responsible for not only getting students ready to learn, but for providing them with a reasonable sense of continuity. Students have a right and a need to know where they have been, where they are going, and why. The examples provided here are only a sample of what could be used.

Steps 3 and 4: Instructional Input and Modeling

Steps three and four are what Rosenshine (1981) would call the explanation-demonstration stage in teaching. Instructional input is the teacher's actual plans for the presentation that will be made. Since traditional lesson plans usually encompass the form of explanation to be used and the type of examples (modeling) to be given, these steps in the Hunter sequence are usually the ones most successfully handled by the average teacher. Still, part of the training that teachers and supervisors receive should include a review of different styles and models of teaching. The larger the set of alternatives provided teachers, the more likely they will select techniques that match the desired objectives with the type and level of the students. Some examples of general reviews of teaching include Joyce and Weil (1972), Bellon, Bellon, and Handler (1977), and

Hyman (1968). In addition, there are a number of specialized models and methods of teaching that have gained credibility with practitioners. These include such things as the learning styles work of Dunn and Dunn (1975), the Cooperative Learning approach as developed by Johnson and Johnson (1975), Ethna Reid's ECRI program, and work on hemisphericity such as used in the 4MAT system (McCarthy, 1980).

There is also an interesting and growing set of research on the concept of clarity. A 1982 Phi Delta Kappa review pointed out the importance of the clarity of presentations to achievement. Rosenshine (1982) has developed a set of behavioral indicators for discriminating between clear and unclear presentations. While this material is not yet available for general use, it is another example of the growing body of practical information emerging from current effectiveness research.

Step 5. Checking For Understanding

In order to make appropriate instructional decisions, the teacher needs to continuously monitor students' level of understanding. Most students learn best the first time they are introduced to material. Thus, if students do not understand what has been presented, it is best for the teacher to stop and re-teach the material as soon as possible. Over-reliance on stringent lesson plans by the teacher or by the supervisor can be counterproductive to this recommended procedure. The need for a teacher to progress from 1A on a lesson plan to 4D on the plan, regardless of what is happening with the students, leads to ineffective teaching. Bloom (1976) and Good, Biddle, and Brophy (1975) suggest that an approximate 70 to 80 percent correct answer rate on verbal responses and seatwork assignments is a satisfactory level of understanding. It is not appropriate to continue with a lesson with a low success rate on the assumption that what students did not understand can be picked up during review sessions. Review is a legitimate and valuable teaching tool, but it is primarily a reinforcing act, which should bring students who are already at a 70 to 80 percent level of understanding up to a 90 to 100 percent level. Review should not be considered a re-teaching activity. Re-teaching should occur immediately following the original presentation once it has been established that a satisfactory level of understanding has not been reached.

There are a number of useful ways to assess understanding. The most practical and immediate way is through the questioning that generally accompanies modeling. For this assessment to be legitimate, *all* the students in a class need to be monitored. It is especially important that nonrespondents be included. Teachers should rely on a number of

directed questions during this part of a lesson. If only undirected questions are asked, the brightest, most verbal students in the room will dominate the discussion, which will lead to a distorted picture of the overall level of understanding. Every teacher should have several benchmark students; when these students show an adequate level of understanding it can be assumed that everyone is ready to move to the next step.

Step 6. Guided Practice

Once an adequate level of understanding has been reached or is at least attainable, it is absolutely essential that students be given the opportunity to practice the new skill or its application. Russell and Hunter call this step guided practice. The effectiveness researchers call it prompted or controlled practice (Stevens and Rosenshine, 1981). Under any name, data are accumulating regarding its extraordinary importance to learning. No single teaching activity has more potential value than guided practice.

Basically, guided practice affords students the opportunity to practice a new skill in the classroom under the direct supervisión of the teacher. The teacher works among the students providing support, encouragement, praise, individual assistance, or re-teaching as needed. It is an opportunity for the teacher to use a number of teacher behaviors that have proven to be directly related to achievement.

Many teachers argue that large class sizes prevent them from providing guided practice to all students. To alleviate this problem, much of the guided practice should be done in groups of five to seven (Stallings and Kaskowitz, 1974), which can be formed heterogeneously by location in the room. The peer tutoring that often exists in these kinds of groupings is also a positive activity. The teacher can move among the groups keeping them all on-task. When the teacher talks to a student in a group all can hear the interaction. By monitoring the efforts of the students in their practice groups the teacher can get another measure of their understanding. When the students have mastered the new material, they are ready to advance to the next step in the sequence.

Step 7. Independent Practice

The final step in effective lesson design provides students the opportunity to practice the new skill independently. Traditionally, independent practice has been in the form of homework. But the concept of homework is frequently misinterpreted and often misused. Homework,

like review, should be a reinforcing activity. *With the possible exception of academically talented or highly motivated pupils, students should never be sent home with homework that they have not already demonstrated in class that they know how to do.*

The average student learns best in a classroom with a teacher, rather than at home struggling through long homework assignments that produce high error rates. Most homework assignments should be short (approximately 20 minutes), drill-and-practice activities on materials students have worked on in class to an adequate level of understanding. This is not an argument against homework, but against the inappropriate use of homework. Research papers, novels, and reading assignments for the next day's class are perfectly acceptable; in fact, day-to-day reading assignments are quite useful—not because students need homework but because such assignments serve as advanced organizers for the next day.

The latter part of this sequence is especially important. Unfortunately, it is also one of the most violated of all recommended teaching practices, becoming much more frequent as off-task times in classrooms increase and the length of periods in the school day decrease. In 35- to 45-minute periods, with 20 percent or more off-task time, it is virtually impossible for a teacher to get through a review of yesterday's work, introduce new material, provide modeling or demonstration time, and run a guided practice activity. What often happens is that teachers run out of time during explanation and demonstration and then move automatically to a homework assignment. They often send the student home with an assignment that has not been adequately explained or practiced. This is almost certain to cause a high error rate and frustration for the average or below-average student. The teacher comes in the next day, finds the high error rate, and then tries to re-teach after considerable frustration has already occurred. In another scenario, the teacher forges on through high error rates because of a lack of time, hoping to find time for re-teaching during the review at the end of the unit. Both of these alternatives are usually inefficient and ineffective.

Hunter developed and labeled this lesson design sequence, but the effectiveness research has more recently provided the hard data. The sequence of events recommended here is extremely important to effective teaching. Schools and teachers need to take this information and develop procedures for making it a regular part of their instructional improvement efforts.

This section on planning is illustrative of the growing set of practical teaching skills that form a solid and basic framework for training teachers and supervisors in a focus for teaching. Teaching is planning, whether it is for climate or for the use of time in the classroom. The next section on management furthers the concept of the teacher-centered classroom.

Management

The discussion in this section, unless otherwise noted, is extrapolated from the following sources.

Kounin (1970)
Emmer and Evertson (1979)
Brophy (1979)
Anderson, Evertson, and Brophy (1979)
Fitzpatrick (1981)

In many respects the more popular term for classroom discipline is classroom management. There is no intent here to offer suggestions on improving disciplinary practice other than how improvement will occur as more general problems are addressed. No area in education has been so thoroughly covered by training packages and dog-and-pony shows as classroom discipline. Schools and teachers have available to them such reputable concepts and packages as behavioral modification techniques, transactional analysis, the Glasser approach (1969), and the assertive discipline materials of Canter (1976). They are useful and helpful and should be made a part of staff development programs. But for inclusion in an overall instructional improvement program, the emphasis and the training should initially be directed at the organization and management of the classroom.

The most significant experimental studies in the teaching effectiveness area over the last five years have been directed at the organization and management of classrooms. The basic format of these studies has involved one group of teachers with specific training in management or instructional skills, and a similar group who did not receive training. In every instance where the teacher had implemented the training, the students had higher achievement or higher academic engaged time than did students in the classrooms of the untrained teachers. In these experimental studies and in the correlational studies that preceded them, the relationship between management skills and student achievement was clear and positive. Thus, organization and management skills are an essential part of the effective teacher's bag of tools. As Brophy (1979) indicates, *effective teachers are effective managers*. The ability to organize and manage a classroom is a basic teaching skill that crosses grade levels and subject areas.

This section is considerably shorter than the climate or planning areas for two reasons. First of all, there is a very close relationship between planning skills and management skills. Consequently, much of the discussion related to the use of time is clearly analagous to good management practices. Approximately 80 percent of all classroom man-

agement problems occur during off-task times in the classroom. There is a certain logic in assuming that before teachers pull out their disciplinary bag of tools, they should first plan class time so as to promote the highest possible engagement rate. The more occupied and supervised students are, the less likely they are to participate in unacceptable behavior.

The second reason this section can be so succinct is because there are already several useful training programs in organization and management skills. These programs are based primarily on the best of the experimental studies, the most noteworthy of which include *The Texas First Grade Reading Group Study* (Anderson, Evertson, and Brophy, 1979), *Missouri Mathematics Effectiveness Study* (Good and Grouws, 1979), *The Texas Elementary School Study* (Emmer, Evertson, and others, 1979), *The Texas Junior High School Study* (Emmer, Evertson, and others, 1981), *The Study of a Training Program in Classroom Organization and Management for Secondary School Teachers* (Fitzpatrick, 1982), and *Exemplary Centers for Reading Instruction* (Reid, 1981).

The training programs that have emerged from these studies are, or will be shortly, available for use. The material is generally attainable through the addresses provided in the references or, as is the case with the training program for elementary teachers, available from ASCD.

Part of the work done by Fitzpatrick (1981) is presented below to illustrate the type of material contained in these programs. The main headings are abbreviated from 13 basic principles of classroom organization and management that have emerged from experimental and correlational studies. Below each of the main headings are sample behaviors in which teachers can be trained. Obviously, the actual training programs are more complete. Also, they tend to be more effective when presented by trained instructors. For our purposes, though, the following summary of language and behavioral indicators can provide the common ground so necessary to an effective evaluation/supervision system.

An Adaptation of the
Organization and Management of the Secondary Classroom*

1. *Rules and Procedures:*
   a. A clear and understandable set of classroom rules exist
   b. Student behavior during class activities is continuously monitored
2. *Consequences:*
   a. Teacher does not ignore inappropriate student behavior
   b. Consequences for behavior are defined and the teacher consistently enforces the rules and procedures
   c. Teacher addresses criticism to specific behaviors which have been defined as inappropriate

*By Kathleen Fitzpatrick, University of Illinois, 1981. Used with permission.

3. *Elimination of Constraints and Interruptions:*
   a. Use of classroom space is efficient; necessary materials are readily accessible to both the teacher and students
   b. Teacher handles emergencies and unexpected problems with a minimal amount of classroom disturbance
   c. There do not exist any "trouble areas" in the seating arrangement, such as talking or misbehaving centers
4. *Emphasis Placed on Academic Goals:*
   a. Teacher is task-oriented, businesslike
   b. Teacher makes choice of assignments
   c. Teacher-student interactions are restricted to the content
5. *Predominance of Whole-Group Activities:*
   a. More class time is allocated to whole group activities rather than to individual work
   b. Teacher presentation to whole group is both visibly and audibly clear
   c. Teacher stays in charge of all students and avoids long involvement with individuals
   d. Teacher commands attention of all students and does not talk over student talk
   e. Teacher gives direction and instruction only when students are ready and listening
6. *Clarity of Presentation:*
   a. An overview of the lesson is provided
   b. The development of the lesson takes place in a sequenced step-by-step design
   c. Teacher emphasizes comprehension, not memorization
   d. Teacher offers reasons for rules and procedures, and highlights any patterns which may exist
   e. Teacher provides a demonstration or application of the skills or concepts contained in the lesson, such as using examples or comparisons
   f. Directions and instructions do not confuse the students, rather they are given in a clear, concise manner
7. *Practice of Skills or Concepts:*
   a. Students are given an opportunity to practice the skills or concepts contained in the lesson during class time
   b. Students are assigned homework
8. *Feedback and Evaluation:*
   a. Teacher is available to provide assistance to students and to spot systematic errors
   b. Correct responses receive praise from the teacher
   c. When the student initially responds to a question incorrectly rather than immediately calling on another student the teacher rephrases the question by asking leading or probing questions
   d. Teacher frequently quizzes the students to assess understanding
   e. Teacher emphasizes a high rate of questioning and asks short, direct questions
9. *Reviews:*
   Teacher conducts an adequate review of previously learned material

10. *Monitoring Behavior:*
    a. Teacher supervises seatwork and actively engages students in classwork
    b. Teacher alerts students to the fact that they are accountable for their work
    c. Teacher scans the room to pinpoint any student behavior which requires attention
    d. Teacher is in control of the class at all times
11. *Transitions:*
    a. Class time is characterized by smooth-running activities
    b. Teacher infrequently interrupts the students by giving further directions or instructions
12. *Accountability for Homework and Classwork:*
    a. Students are required to turn in all assignments, both classwork and homework
    b. Teacher sets clear expectations and high standards emphasizing the students' responsibility to complete all assignments
    c. Teacher checks the students' assignments
    d. Teacher returns the students' assignments after checking their work
13. *Classroom Climate:*
    a. Teacher acknowledges student accomplishments with praise
    b. Evaluation practices the teacher administers are fair and consistent
    c. Teacher conveys enthusiasm for the subject matter
    d. Teacher strives to involve all the students in class activities and encourages the participation of each student
    e. Teacher recognizes and acknowledges the students by name.

A narrowed focus on teaching is the most important of all the commonalities. It is the best possible way to move teacher evaluation from its questionable past to its rightful position as the major staff development effort in a school. The difference that teachers and teaching make is maximized when teachers are given the encouragement, the involvement, the support, and the training that they need to have in order to be willing and able to change their behavior. A practical and realistic evaluation system based on the focus of teaching presented here has the potential to be the mechanism for meeting the needs of the teachers, the supervisors, and the organization.

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COMMONALITY 6:

Improved Classroom Observation Skills

Classroom observation is the most practical procedure for collecting formal data about teacher performance. The quality of observations and the ways supervisors collect and share data with teachers are major factors in the success and effectiveness of teacher evaluation systems. Recognizing this fact, districts with effective evaluation systems have, in most instances, systematically set out to improve the observation skills of their supervisors.

Training to improve observation skills is most effective when supervisors have already adopted an appropriate attitude about observation. As suggested in Commonality 1, believing evaluation is a cooperative effort of teacher and supervisor to improve instruction allows the supervisor to put observation into a proper perspective. Too often supervisors have had to live with common law evaluation procedures that force them into a wide-angle lens approach to viewing classrooms. They develop a "here are your strengths and weaknesses, so work on your weaknesses until I see you again next year" style that is increasingly regarded by researchers, teachers, and supervisors as unreliable and inadequate.

Contemporary views of observation, based on research and experience, strongly suggest that the appropriate role for a supervisor in visiting classrooms is to be a collector of descriptive data on a predetermined aspect of the teacher's performance. The notion of developing in supervisors the ability to narrow their focus during observations and skill in collecting descriptive rather than evaluative data is the essence of the training programs that are most effective.

In reviewing many of the excellent sources available regarding classroom observation (for example, Medley and Mitzel, 1963; Rosenshine and Furst, 1973; Borich, 1977; Borich and Madden, 1977; Stallings, 1977), there appear to be four practical ways for supervisors to improve

their observational skills and the way they use data once they are collected.

1. The reliability and usefulness of classroom observation is directly related to the amount and type of information supervisors have *prior* to the observation.

2. The narrower the focus supervisors use in observing classrooms, the more likely they will be able to accurately describe the events related to that focus.

3. The impact of observational data on supervisor-teacher relationships and on the teacher's willingness to fully participate in an instructional improvement activity is directly related to the way the data is recorded during observation.

4. The impact of observational data on supervisor-teacher relationships and on the teacher's willingness to fully participate in an instructional improvement activity is directly related to the way feedback is presented to the teacher.

These general rules for training are all imbedded in one way or another in the concepts of clinical supervision, which is a model often used by districts as the basis for their evaluation system. Although traditional definitions of clinical supervision prevent it from being used as a summative evaluation model, many districts have found that the supervisory techniques encouraged within the concept have practical implications. The most immediate effect can be generated by borrowing from the classic "cycle of supervision" recommendations regarding pre- and post-conferencing and suggestions as to how observations are conducted.

Much of the tinkering with the original Goldhammer (1969) and Cogan (1973) "cycle of supervision" has occurred naturally as supervisors face the reality of their situations. The majority of supervision in American schools is not carried out by classic supervisors in clinical situations. Approximately 80 percent of classroom supervision is conducted by line administrators who are in classrooms because the evaluation system mandates it. Their typically infrequent visits are characterized by the need to generate some form of summative evaluation. The nature of this forced relationship prevents the traditional view of clinical supervision from being functional. (See Snyder, 1981, for an excellent discussion of "Clinical Supervision in the 1980's.") Cogan himself began to sense the need for alteration when he said ". . . certain phases of the cycle may be altered, or omitted, or new procedures instituted, depending upon the successful development of working relationships between the supervisor and the teacher" (Cogan, 1973, p. 12).

Pulling out of certain clinical supervision techniques or altering them

to fit current conditions does not deny the effort that went into their development. But it is necessary to reshape the techniques into practices that can meet the demands of the contemporary supervisor. (Garman, 1982, offers an excellent discussion of the "itinerant" and the clinical supervisor, and presents a stimulating contemporary view of clinical supervision.)

Four Tenets of Classroom Observation

Since this book is not designed as a training manual, only a portion of what might be included in a complete training program is provided. To get a feeling for the kind of training efforts that schools with effective teacher evaluation systems have used to address this commonality, each of the four tenets is discussed briefly.

1. The reliability and usefulness of classroom observation is directly related to the amount and kind of information the supervisor obtains beforehand.

Under normal circumstances, classroom observations should not occur unless a conference has been held with the teacher *before* the observation. Most supervisors are able to see the logic of pre-conferencing, especially when they conjure up visions of classrooms in which they spent the majority of the time trying to figure out what teachers were doing and where they were going. Entering the classroom cold for an observation is an extraordinarily inefficient use of time as well as a basically unreliable act.

Acheson and Gall (1980) label the opening conference of the supervision cycle the planning conference. At this meeting, the supervisor and the teacher identify a specific focus for their involvement. The techniques recommended by Acheson and Gall sound very similar to the discussion of goal-setting conferences provided in Commonality 4. They suggest that these seven techniques constitute an agenda for the conference, and further recommend that they be followed in the order presented (Acheson and Gall, 1980, p. 43).

1. Identify the teacher's concerns about instruction.
2. Translate the teacher's concerns into observable behaviors.
3. Identify procedures for improving the teacher's instruction.
4. Assist the teacher in setting self-improvement goals.
5. Arrange a time for classroom observation.
6. Select an observation instrument and behaviors to be recorded.
7. Clarify the instructional context in which data will be recorded.

The first four of these techniques are clearly applicable to the initial goal-setting conferences that are so integral to effective evaluation systems. As such, the discussion accompanying these four techniques in the Acheson and Gall book (pp. 44–51) can be a useful training resource. The last three techniques are more closely tied to the supervisor's preparation before observing.

Anderson and Krajewski (1980) have a somewhat different perspective of the pre-conference. Their notion is more in line with the way pre-conferences are most frequently used in actual school settings—that is, to gather information about what specifically is going to happen during the class that will be observed and to set up ground rules between the supervisor and the teacher. Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1980, p. 55) offer the following format for a pre-observation conference.

1. Establish a "contract" or "agreement" between the supervisor and the teacher to be observed, including:
   a. Objectives of the lesson.
   b. Relationship of the lesson objectives to the overall learning program being implemented.
   c. Activities to be observed.
   d. Possible changing of activity format, delivery system, and other elements based on interactive agreement between supervisor and teacher.
   e. Specific description of items or problems on which the teacher wants feedback.

2. Establish the mechanics or ground rules of the observation including:
   a. Time of observation.
   b. Length of observation.
   c. Place of observation.

3. Establish specific plans for carrying out the observation.
   a. Where shall the supervisor sit?
   b. Should the supervisor talk to students about the lesson? If so, when? Before or after the lesson?
   c. Will the supervisor look for a specific action?
   d. Should the supervisor interact with students?
   e. Will any special materials or preparations be necessary?
   f. How shall the supervisor leave the observation?

The nature of the items in the outline suggests more of an informational conference than a pre-planning or goal-setting conference. Recent experience with practicing supervisors indicates that establishing a relatively nondirective, informational conference seems to be a more effective and satisfying experience. The amount of time available for supervision, the number of teachers to be evaluated, and the experience of the teaching staff are necessitating a more efficient use of supervisor and teacher time. What has emerged in effective evaluation systems is a clear

separation of the pre-planning or goal-setting conference from what would truly be a pre-observation conference.

In the goal-setting conference, the supervisor and the teacher arrive at a mutually agreeable focus for the remainder of the evaluation period. Once the focus is established they develop a plan for working together to achieve the goals. If observation is determined to be appropriate for the goal, then any observation will automatically include the pre-conference, observation, and post-conference cycle. Also, once the focus has been established, it should be understood that all observations will be built around that focus and will be scheduled only at times when activities in the classroom relate to the goal. At the same time the observation is scheduled, a time for the post-conference should also be set. Both pre- and post-conferences can be held up to three days before or after the observation and still retain their usefulness (Griffith, 1973). There is an implication here that the detailed format of Anderson and Krajewski's pre-conferences may be too complex and time-consuming. The mechanics, ground rules, and plans for carrying out the observations should be discussed at the goal-setting conference. Specific scheduling for individual visits could then be handled in a more informal manner. Conferences can be productive and satisfying by following an almost exclusive informational format built around several key questions put to the teacher by the supervisor.

"Why don't you catch me up about where you are now and what you have been doing?"

It is extremely useful to know if a teacher is at the beginning, middle, or end of a unit. Supervisors' perceptions of classroom activities and occurrences can be significantly affected by the location of a class in relation to the amount of material to be covered. Often all the information a supervisor needs can be acquired through this question since many teachers are delighted to have an opportunity to share with their supervisor the things they are or have been doing in class.

"What will you be doing during my visit?"

This question helps supervisors know what to expect during the visit. They can organize their thoughts about the most efficient use of their time; the relationship of the lesson to the pre-established goal; and the most appropriate way to collect data considering the predicted events in the class.

"What do you hope the students will learn?"

This question determines whether the teacher has a definite purpose

for the lesson and if the activities that are to occur are appropriate for these purposes. This allows supervisors to have a clearer perception of events as they actually occur in the room. Along with question 2, it also provides important information for use in the post-conference. This type of pre-established information makes it much easier for the supervisor and the teacher to talk technically and professionally about the degree of congruence between what was supposed to happen and what actually happened.

The pre-conference also gives the supervisor and teacher time to review and discuss the data collection procedures that will be used. This should already have been discussed during the original goal-setting conference. The clinical supervision literature suggests that it is appropriate to ask the teacher if there is anything additional the supervisor should observe or record. The teacher can then receive feedback or help on any problem or situation that may have developed since the goal-setting conference.

The conduct of supervisors during this type of informational pre-conference is not the conduct recommended in clinical supervision. Clinical supervision was originally developed for use in training pre-service teachers. Consequently, there is a recommendation that the pre-conference serve as a training activity. As teachers present what they will be doing in class, supervisors are encouraged to make changes or alterations in the lesson plan. Working out a new or altered lesson is a valuable training activity for the teacher, especially for pre-service or beginning teachers (Boyan and Copeland, 1974). However, under current conditions in schools, most supervisors find themselves working with teaching staffs in which 90 percent or more are experienced, tenured teachers. These teachers do not seem to find the same value in having a supervisor suggest alterations in their lesson before it has even been taught. *Since teacher attitude is so important to successful supervision, it is recommended that pre-observational conferences held with experienced teachers be conducted as nonevaluative, informational sessions.* Certainly the more inexperienced or more incompetent a teacher is, the more comfortable a supervisor should feel in using the pre-conference as a directed training activity.

Most administrators who have become accustomed to holding short pre-observational conferences indicate that it is among their finest times in supervision. It provides them with the opportunity to meet privately and talk professionally with their staff in a non-evaluative manner.

The idea of increasing the amount of information prior to an observation has both strong research support and positive response from practitioners. Consequently, it deserves serious attention in any attempt to develop more reliable and successful classroom observations.

2. The accuracy of the classroom observation is directly related to the supervisor's use of a narrow focus of observation.

Hyman (1975) offers the following statement about observation:

Observing is much more than seeing. Observing involves the intentional and methodical viewing of the teacher and students. Observing involves planned, careful, focused, and active attention by the observer.

It is critical to successful observation for the observer to be selective. The typical classroom is an extraordinarily complex arena that prohibits wide-angle reporting with any degree of reliability. This simple concept has long been one of the major arguments against the use of common law evaluation systems. For years administrators have been required to evaluate teachers on the basis of infrequent, unfocused observations that supposedly provided the observer with the "objective" data needed to determine a rating on a set of broad criteria. There is no justification at all for these practices to continue. The first move away from ineffective and inefficient observations is the supervisor's realization that a narrowed focus on classroom observation must be adopted.

At this point, however, it must be emphasized that in successful evaluation systems the decisions about focusing on specific aspects of classroom instruction should be made jointly by the supervisor and the teacher. There are no secrets in effective systems, and that includes decisions about what will be looked at during observations. The only exceptions to this would be with beginning teachers or teachers who have some serious deficiencies and are being provided direct remedial attention. Even in these cases the teachers should still be informed of the focus even though they may not have fully participated in the decision.

The first way that a classroom focus is determined occurs naturally when observation is part of a goal-setting system. The act of setting goals is by design a focusing event. The recommended format for goal setting requires the development of a plan of action for meeting the goal. For instance, the supervisor and teacher might schedule an observation or a series of observations so that the supervisor can view, record, and analyze the teacher's interventions or actions that address the desired goal. Consequently, the observation is an activity that is already a part of a focusing decision. The focus is established by the fact that observations only occur during classroom activities that are relevant to the goal.

While the goal-setting system encourages selective observation, it puts certain pressures on supervisors that must be understood and accepted. In a sense, the setting of goals is a form of criteria establishment. The goals form the basis for the relationship between the teacher and the supervisor since the two of them will be working on the goals together. Both supervisor and teacher must adopt an attitude that says

this is what we will look at during evaluation. Supervisors must learn to avoid extraneous critiques on "criteria" other than those established by the goals. (Obviously there would be certain exceptions to this, particularly in regard to teaching behaviors that could be physically or emotionally damaging to students.) This attitude is often difficult to accept. Traditionally, evaluation has been viewed as synonymous with observation—where observation is an unplanned visit during which the supervisor attempts to take in everything that is happening in the classroom and selects only a few items to use as the basis for evalution. In a goal-setting situation, the goals must serve as the parameters for focusing the attention of the supervisor with the teacher. Any attempts to throw in additional feedback on items falling outside the agreed-upon focus can only lead to an erosion of the very things that make goal setting and the resulting selective observations useful and effective.

A second type of natural focusing occurs in school districts that have adopted a particular view of teaching. According to Evertson and Holley (1981, p. 107), "a picture of what effective teaching looks like in the classroom is beginning to emerge, and the assessment of teachers by means of observation can now be regarded as a meaningful activity." Borich (1977) makes the case for using a framework to look at teaching: "Observation involves systematically recording a variety of specific, discrete teacher behaviors that are assumed, according to a theoretical framework, to be related to pupil growth." As suggested in Commonality 5, it is important, if not necessary, for a district to assume some framework, some narrowed focus for looking at teaching. In relationship to the idea of improving observational skills, the adopted view of teaching provides an automatic set of guidelines for observation.

As discussed in Commonality 5, the teacher effectiveness research should serve as the framework for viewing teaching. The logical first step in applying the effectiveness research in observation is to look separately at climate, planning, and management. Even though these areas overlap, separating them allows for additional specifying of focus. For example, under the climate heading, observers would focus attention on the major behaviors of involvement and success, and specifically on behavioral indices. To illustrate, in observing involvement levels in the classroom it would be valuable for the supervisor to record such things as who responds and who does not; what kinds of questions the teacher asks; the number of correct and incorrect responses; amount and quality of the time the teacher spends with each responding student; and the environmental contexts that could be affecting involvement levels (seat arrangements, visibility, sound levels, availability of materials, and so forth).

If a planning focus is appropriate, either because of a pre-established goal in that area or because the teacher or the supervisor has requested it

as a focus, then other behaviors can be given special attention. The supervisor can record the time it takes to get class started, how much off-task time occurs during transitions, and the time and effort given to each of the steps in the Hunter lesson design sequence.

The management heading also offers a number of ways to focus attention during observation. The set of management principles described by Fitzpatrick (1981) and presented in Commonality Five could be used easily as an observation guide.

The key element to the use of a predetermined teaching framework for promoting selective observation is that the view of teaching has a respectable research base. The use of a research-based teaching focus, especially for observations, helps ensure that the time supervisors and teachers spend in this activity is built around behaviors that make a difference. There is no greater waste of energy or resources than supervisory or instructional improvement activities for which there is no evidence that change will make any difference. *The most successful evaluation systems are designed to increase the quality of supervisor-teacher time, not the quantity.*

The third way to effectively focus classroom observation is less natural than the other two in that it requires decisions that are best made after some training. Hyman (1975, p. 25) makes the following point:

> Being selective involves "taking a point of view," and the easiest way to take one is to choose an *observational instrument* from among the many our researchers have developed. An instrument has a built-in framework, a point of view or vantage point, as well as a set of rules for systematically observing and organizing data. In addition to guiding the observer in selecting what to observe, an observational instrument yields reliable and specific data which forms the basis for helpful feedback.

There is an obvious logic about the use of some form of observation instrument, and as Hyman implies, there is no lack of instruments. (See, for example, Simon and Boyer, 1967; Borich and Madden, 1977; Griffith, 1973; Acheson and Gall, 1980.) While the logic is sound and instruments are readily available, the decision to use observation instruments must be viewed realistically. The great majority of instruments are not really designed for practical use; to be used effectively, most require considerable amounts of training. And, as Evertson and Holley (1981) suggest, elaborate training in the use of some complex observation guide is not really practical for school administrators.

Nor should the tail be allowed to wag the dog. An instrument should not be selected because it is popular or available or because someone suggests that it has high reliability and validity. Many districts wanting to display their sophistication have adopted certain visible observational instruments and require all supervisors and teachers to use them regard-

less of whether their particular focus is applicable to individual supervisor-teacher goals. Observation instruments should be used if they are appropriate to the direction the supervisor and the teacher are taking. The consideration of focus, whether in the goal-setting conference or in a preobservation conference, must come before any consideration of observation instruments.

When a particular focus or goal has been determined, and if observation is a part of the plan to look at the teacher's work and growth, *then* a decision about an appropriate instrument to aid data collection can be made. Fortunately, much of the recent effectiveness research depends heavily on observation as a form of data collection. Out of this research some relatively simple, descriptive instruments and techniques have been developed. Many of them match up almost perfectly with the emerging effectiveness categories of climate, planning, and management. In discussing the importance of a research based focus and the deliberate use of observation instruments that match the research, Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1980) make the following point:

> In recent years, however, because scholars have been able to identify instructional variables that correlate with learning outcomes or to specific teaching models, we are now able to guide the observations and data collection focus toward those practices that appear to matter (i.e., time on task, instructional cues and directives, reinforcement, student participation, and correctives and feedback). Research-based observation makes sense because it not only gives teachers important messages about what makes a difference but also tends to maximize the effectiveness of supervisory observations and to result in behavior reinforcements, modifications, and alterations that may have significant impact on the learning process itself.

The best use of many of these recently developed instruments and the knowledge necessary to use them can be learned in relatively short training periods (two hours or less in many cases). However, since the field of instrument development is so dynamic, and the teaching research is growing so dramatically it is safe to assume that better and better instruments are constantly being designed. Observation instruments can greatly increase the effectiveness of supervisors, especially those instruments that are emerging from the teaching research.

3. The way data are recorded directly affects the supervisor-teacher relationship and the teacher's willingness to participate in instructional improvement.

When selecting an observation instrument there are several different formats from which to choose, each partially defined by the way the data are recorded. Because the way data are recorded can affect the success of a supervisory activity, consideration of different types of observation instruments is mandatory.

Figure 10. Stanford Teacher Competence Appraisal Guide

			0	30%	15%	15%	15%	15%	10%	
			0 UNABLE TO OBSERVE	1 WEAK	2 BELOW AVERAGE	3 AVERAGE	4 STRONG	5 SUPERIOR	6 OUTSTANDING	7 TRULY EXCEPTIONAL
AIMS	1. Clarity of aims.	The purposes of the lesson are clear.								
	2. Appropriateness of aims.	The aims are neither too easy nor too difficult for the pupils. They are appropriate, and are accepted by the pupils.								
PLANNING	3. Organization of the lesson.	The individual parts of the lesson are clearly related to each other in an appropriate way. The total organization facilitates what is to be learned.								
	4. Selection of content.	The content is appropriate for the aims of the lesson, the level of the class, and the teaching method.								
	5. Selection of materials.	The specific instructional materials and human resources used are clearly related to the content of the lesson and complement the selected method of instruction.								

PERFORMANCE	6. Beginning the lesson.	Pupils come quickly to attention. They direct themselves to the tasks to be accomplished.								
	7. Clarity of presentation.	The content of the lesson is presented so that it is understandable to the pupils. Different points of view and specific illustrations are used when appropriate.								
	8. Pacing of the lesson.	The movement from one part of the lesson to the next is governed by the pupils' achievement. The teacher "stays with the class" and adjusts the tempo accordingly.								
	9. Pupil participation and attention.	The class is attentive. When appropriate, the pupils actively participate in the lesson.								
	10. Ending the lesson.	The lesson is ended when the pupils have achieved the aims of instruction. There is a deliberate attempt to tie together the planned and chance events of the lesson and relate them to the immediate and long-range aims of instruction.								
	11. Teacher-pupil rapport.	The personal relationships between pupils and the teacher are harmonious.								
EVALUATION	12. Variety of evaluative procedures.	The teacher devises and uses an adequate variety of procedures, both formal and informal, to evaluate progress in all of the aims of instruction.								
	13. Use of evaluation to improve teaching and learning.	The results of evaluation are carefully reviewed by teacher and pupils for the purpose of improving teaching and learning.								

Rating Scales. Rating scales require the observer to make high inference judgments regarding the teacher's behaviors or traits. The particular items to be rated are indicative of the instrument's specific focus. The typical rating scale is usually a three- to seven-point scale on which the observer marks the word or phrase or space on a line that best represents, in his or her judgment, the degree to which a certain variable or behavior was present. In early effectiveness studies, high inference rating scales were used successfully, and thus gained legitimacy (Rosenshine and Furst, 1971).

There are many kinds of rating scales, but only those specifically designed to be classroom observation instruments should be considered. Figure 10 on pages 106–107 contains a series of criteria that are exclusively teaching behaviors. They can only be rated by direct observation, and are presented in a logical pattern, as they would likely occur in a regular classroom. The items pertain to planning skills that are related to effective teaching. Appropriate and understandable definitions of the terms are also provided.

On the other hand, many instruments that are, by definition, rating scales are inappropriate as guides for classroom observation. One of the characteristics of common law evaluation models is the use of a districtwide rating scale for summative evaluations of teachers. The summative evaluation is the concluding act in the evaluation procedure, designed to tell the teacher, the administration, and the school board just how the teacher rates in comparison to other teachers. While this practice is bad enough, it gets even worse. Very often, supervisors with no training, and very little incentive to seek it, end up using the summative evaluation rating scale as a classroom observation instrument. The sample in Figure 11 is a typical district rating scale that is completed by administrators at the conclusion of an observation. Thus, it serves as both an observation guide and as the final overall evaluation of the teacher.

Many of the items on this scale could be completed without an observation. Those criteria that are directly related to teaching are so broad that any kind of high inference rating provides such generalized feedback that it is virtually useless.

Rating scales that have been designed specifically for observation and that have some particular focus can be very helpful. The more specific and well-defined the items on the instrument, the more useful it can be. A concept labeled BARS, Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales, has considerable potential for adding reliability and usefulness to the high inference act of rating. Basically it involves a sample set of characteristics or behaviors that should be present before a rating can be given. In other words, not only would the item to be rated be clearly defined, but so

Figure 11. Observation and Evaluation Report

teacher name | school building | grade/subject | school year | date of visit

_____ First Year Teacher _____ Non-tenure Teacher _____ Tenure Teacher

This instrument is designed to help define, measure, and improve the quality of instruction in our system. It is also to serve as a basis for conferences between the teacher, department grade level chairman, and principal. Please use "x" marks. Items not marked indicate that the evaluator made no judgment in that area.

	Commend-able	Satis-factory	Mar-ginal	Unsatis-factory
I. PERSONAL QUALITIES				
1. Meets obligations				
2. Staff relationships				
3. Enthusiasm				
4. Attitude toward constructive criticism				
COMMENTS:				
II. TEACHING QUALITIES				
1. Organization and planning of instruction ...				
2. Provisions for individual differences and needs of pupils				
3. Knowledge of subject and skills of field				
4. Maintenance of effective social behavior of pupils				
5. Presentation and teaching techniques				
6. Evaluation of pupil progress				
7. Rapport with pupils				
8. Parent relationships				
COMMENTS:				
III. PROFESSIONAL QUALITIES				
1. Performs duties in accordance with Board of Education, Administration and School Policies				
2. Professional growth				
3. Attitude toward teaching profession				
4. Discusses problems and personalities only with those concerned				
COMMENTS:				

Teacher conference comments: (Optional) _____

_____

Teacher's signature below indicates that the conference has been held, and that the teacher has seen this report.

I do _____ do not _____ concur with this evaluation.

_____ _____

Evaluator's signature, title | Teacher's signature

_____ Copy to: Assistant Superintendent

Date of conference Principal

Dept./Grade Level Chairman

Teacher Evaluated

would the points on the rating scale. The use of BARS would allow the observer to have some criteria in mind when contemplating what kind of rating to give. (See Beatty and Schneier, 1977, for a more detailed discussion of this interesting concept, along with some examples.)

Category systems. Evertson and Holley (1981) define these systems as follows:

> Those designed to record a behavior, event, or interactional sequence each time it occurs are category systems. The object of a category system is to classify each behavioral item of interest into one and only one category, where the categories are defined as independent and mutually exclusive. Categories are designed in advance, limited in number, and represent classifications on a given dimension, such as teacher-pupil interaction or the nature of teacher questioning.

Undoubtedly the most often cited example of a category system is the Flanders system of interaction anaysis (Amidon and Hough, 1967). It is easy to learn and provides useful information on the quantity and type of teacher-student verbal interaction that occurs while the observer is doing the categorization. Like all well-accepted category instruments, it is helpful and informative about the teaching behaviors it is designed to identify. The limitations of each category system must be clearly understood by the supervisor and the teacher. Beyond the more objective description of the number of times focused behaviors occurred, the greatest benefit of category systems is that they promote high levels of technical talk as the supervisor and teacher review the data. A number of sources are available for identifying specific category systems (Simon and Boyer, 1967; Griffith, 1973; Rosenshine and Furst, 1973; and Borich and Madden, 1977).

A general group of category type systems are proving to be especially useful in light of current teaching effectiveness research. Acheson and Gall (1980) label this group SCORE—Seating Chart Observation Records. As might be guessed, these instruments use student seating charts or student names as a starting point.

One example of a SCORE type category system was developed by Rosenshine and Berliner (1981), based on original work by Marliave and others (1980) in the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (BTES). An adaptation of this system, shown in Figure 12, provides data on engaged time and success rates of the students during the class being observed. Definitions and directions are provided and it is simply up to the observer to mark the appropriate category that reflects what is happening by the name of the particular student being observed. Like most category systems that have been designed for use in a live situation (as opposed to systems that require video or audio taping to correctly identify more complex categories), this procedure is relatively simple to learn. It is best

learned, however, from a person specifically trained and experienced in the use of the instrument.

Category systems demand the strict attention of the observer. There is little opportunity to observe every event or occurrence that falls outside the specified categories. This fact is both the strength and weakness of categories. The specific focus that has been identified as important and for which the instrument was designed can be accurately recorded. But if a more general view of the class is in order, then categories can be counterproductive to that goal.

This is a useful illustration of a SCORE type category system. Other similar instruments designed to measure engaged time include Stallings Student Off-Task Seating Chart (1982), Stallings Teacher Interactions

Figure 12. Observing Academic Engaged Minutes and Success Rate

Teacher: _____ Subject: _____

Allocated time: start _____ stop _____

Transition times:

Student	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E

The "E" Column: Coding Engagement

\+ Student is engaged in academic activity.

T Student is in transition between activities. This might include sharpening pencil, going to bathroom, passing out or passing in papers, or putting heading on a paper. Transitions frequently occur at the beginning of the day, period or activity; when students exchange papers to be graded; when students are getting ready for the day's lesson; when students are moving from lesson to seatwork; when students are moving from one activity center to another.

W Student is waiting for the teacher. This can occur when a student is "stuck" and is waiting for the teacher's help, or when a student has finished an assignment and needs to be checked before going on to other work.

– Student is off task. The student is expected to be working at his or her seat or listening to the teacher or class, and is not doing so.

(For general purposes, T, W, and – are all coded as "not engaged." But in studying a classroom, it is important to note the amount of time that is spent in T and W.)

Using the Instrument

Complete the first column by coding the engagement of each student. This task will take up to three minutes. Then complete the second column, third, and so on, coding each student's engagement, until the class or activity being observed ends. An alternative to using every student would be to select six to 10 students to serve as representative of the entire class.

Form (1982), and Acheson and Gall's System for Measuring Verbal Flow (1980). These few examples represent a number of recently developed category systems that match up perfectly with the basic teaching skills identified in Commonality 5. Virtually all of the teacher behaviors that are related to student achievement are measurable through some form of category system. As districts seek to improve the quality of observations conducted in the schools they should provide supervisors and teachers with information and training about category systems that are directed at the teaching behaviors most frequently addressed in goal-setting conferences.

Narratives. While rating scales and category systems can be useful, the narrative form of data recording seems to best fit the realities of teacher evaluation.

With the high pressure atmosphere of teacher evaluation, teachers are less accepting of data that is totally, as in in rating scales, or partially, as with category systems, dependent on inferential observer judgments or evaluations. Consequently, whenever possible (and it should be possible most of the time) supervisors should rely on recordings of events that factually describe what occurred. Evertson and Holley (1981) introduce narratives in this way:

> The narrative method depicts classroom phenomena in the manner in which they occurred; it describes the phenomena in the natural terms of the classroom itself. When employing the narrative method, although the use of some technical terms may be useful and desirable, the observer for the most part simply describes in more or less ordinary terms what happens in the classroom.

The first skill that should be developed in classroom observers is the ability to write descriptively rather than judgmentally (Clements and Evertson, 1980). A number of successful training activities can be used in local settings, similar to those outlined in Figure 14, which are adapted from materials used by the Miamisburg, Ohio, public schools.

Typically, the supervisor would prepare a narrative description of events in the classroom from notes—referred to as raw data—taken during the observation. In the conference following the observation, the supervisor and the teacher would use the written narrative as the focus of their discussion.

In training programs, supervisors practice writing raw data using videotapes of actual teaching episodes, and then transfer these data into a running narrative of the events depicted on the videotape. Through a process of peer review, discussion, and rewriting, fairly high reliability levels can be obtained. This is a very useful training activity that requires a short initial training session of approximately three hours. In periodic review sessions supervisors bring in samples of raw data and narratives of their actual observations of teachers.

The material in Figure 13 is based heavily on the work of Madeline Hunter (1976). It encourages supervisors to write descriptive narratives and produce categories that reflect important considerations in effective teaching. This report (narrative and categories with examples) is shared with the teacher and serves as the basis for the post-observation conference. In Miamisburg, the supervisory act consists of a pre-observation conference, the observation from which the narrative emerges, and the post-observation conference. No goal occurs before this process. While perhaps not as effective as if it were tied to a goal-setting model, the decriptive narrative can be very beneficial even within the structure of a common law evaluation system. Districts that are reluctant to make the difficult break from their traditional common law model would do well to borrow these procedures for conducting those classroom observations.

Figure 13. Preparing For and Writing Narrative

I. PREPARING
- A. Arrive in classroom before bell rings.
- B. Sit in back of room or on side.
- C. Bring with you from pre-observation conference:
  - Objectives of lesson
  - Current learning activities
  - Materials used during the class

II. COLLECTING RAW DATA
- A. Write everything that happens.
- B. Develop your own approach.
- C. Develop your own form of abbreviations:
  - T. T. = Teacher Talk
  - S. T. = Student Talk
- D. Write teacher statements, teacher questions, student statements, and student questions.
- E. More experienced data collectors may have a checklist.
  - What is the teacher doing?
    - Talking, Movement
  - What is the teacher saying?
    - Questions, Praise, Lecture, Criticism
  - What are the students doing?
    - Listening, Eye Contact, Behavior, On Task
  - What are the students saying?
    - Questioning, Participating
  - Presence of components of a good lesson?
    - Anticipatory Set
    - Statement of Objective
    - Providing Input
    - Modeling
    - Checking For Comprehension
    - Providing Guided Practice
    - Providing Independent Practice

III. TRANSFERRING FROM RAW DATA TO NARRATIVE
- Narrative is short review of class process.
- It is general rather than specific.

It shows progress of lesson and points of emphasis.
It is factual and avoids conclusions.

CONCLUSION = Students had a tendency to speak out during lesson, talking to themselves and not following procedure or waiting to be recognized before responding.

FACT = During each segment of the lesson, more than half the students spoke without being called on by the teacher. During the discussion on definitions several students responded at one time.

CONCLUSION = While teacher talked to students, many were turned around talking to others, showing little interest.

FACT = While the teacher was giving an announcement about a fashion show and asking about assignments, ten students were turned around talking to their nearest seatmates.

IV. DEVELOPING CATEGORIES FROM THE NARRATIVE

In reviewing the narrative, categories of teaching behaviors or contexts should be identified. The categories should be presented after the narrative and should list specific behaviors, events, or conditions that represented the category. Examples of important teaching categories include:

A. Teacher Performance (Management)
   - Was the previous lesson reviewed? (Continuity)
   - Can the objective of the lesson be identified? (Objective)
   - Was the lesson introduced? (Introduction)
   - Were directions clear and concise? (Directions)
   - Did the teacher change activities? (Variety of Activities)
   - Was there smooth change from one activity to another? (Transition)
   - Did class begin and end on time? (Use of Class Time)

B. Student Involvement
   - During the period, what percentage of students were directly involved in the lesson and how? (Class Participation)
   - What types of questions did the students ask? (Student Understanding, Comprehension)
   - Did students remain on task, throughout the period? If not, when, why and how many did not? (On Task)
   - Was there effective study time? (Guided Practice)
   - Were there student initiated questions? (Knowledge of Results/Comprehension)

C. Classroom Environment
   - Were chairs arranged so that all students could see the board, teacher, etc.? (Room Arranged for Instruction)
   - Was the audio visual equipment used in the lesson accessible, visible and appropriate for the lesson? (Use of Audio Visual Aids)

An example of a written narrative and the development of specific categories from both the raw data and the narrative itself is as follows:

NAME OF TEACHER Kathy Myers DATE OF OBSERVATION February 12, 1983
SCHOOL Snowhill TIME OR PERIOD 2:15–3:00
GRADE LEVEL OR SUBJECT AREA Math-6th Grade

Ms. Myers' objectives for today's lesson were (1) to review the multiplication of fractions; and (2) to introduce the multiplication of one mixed number and a fraction, and the multiplication of two mixed numbers.

Teacher began lesson by asking students to trade homework (multiplication of fractions) to be graded. She directed their attention to the board where she had numbered the 14 homework problems prior to the lesson. She randomly called 14 students to the board. Each student was directed to do 1 of the 14 problems from the textbook. As the students worked the problems the teacher questioned, "Why did you cancel 5 into 10?" "What was really

easy about number 12?" When the students finished, all 14 homework problems were correctly worked on the board. Class was then directed to grade the papers, put the number correct at the top of the page, and hand the paper back to the proper student. After the students looked at the problems they missed, Scott collected the papers to give to the teacher.

She then directed their attention to two teacher-made charts showing how to change mixed numbers to fractions. She wrote a problem ($7\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{2}$) on the board and questioned, "What do I have to do to $7\frac{3}{4}$ before I can multiply?" As students responded she wrote ($\frac{31}{4} \times \frac{1}{2}$) and explained, "Now, I can multiply." Students were instructed to turn to page 175 in their textbook and start doing the problems at the top of the page. Teacher continuously moved about the room encouraging and helping students. She questioned and reminded, "You must change the mixed number first." "You must make it top heavy." She continued to praise with "Excellent. Exactly right."

During seat work, all students kept their eyes on their papers, did not talk to their neighbors, and held up their hands whenever they needed the assistance of the teacher. The problems that were not completed at the end of the period were assigned as homework. Teacher reminded, "You can come in at 8:30 in the morning for mini-math if you need extra help." "I'll give you a pass to come in early."

Specific Areas That Stood Out In Ms. Myer's Class Included:

I. Planned carefully for the day's lesson.
   A. Had definite objectives for lesson.
      a. Review the multiplication of fractions.
      b. Introduce the multiplication of one mixed number and a fraction and the multiplication of two mixed numbers.
   B. Asked questions that helped students to understand the objectives.
      a. "Why did you cancel 5 into 10?"
      b. "What was really easy about number 12?"
      c. "What do I have to do to $7\frac{3}{4}$ before I can multiply?"

II. Used positive reinforcement by responding.
   A. "Good."
   B. "Exactly right."
   C. "Way to go."
   D. "Excellent."

III. Students remained on task throughout the lesson.
   A. Involved all students in grading homework and chalkboard exercise.
   B. Asked students to volunteer conclusions.
   C. All were sitting erect and maintained eye contact with teacher.

IV. Made effective use of a variety of teaching materials.
   A. Homework (graded by students)
   B. Chalkboard
   C. Teacher-made charts
   D. Textbook

V. Related positively to students.
   A. Called all students by their first names.
   B. Constantly moved around room creating close awareness between teacher and student.

VI. Comprehension and understanding of students was increased by the following teacher statements.
   A. "Now, I can multiply."
   B. "You must change the mixed number first."
   C. "You must make it top heavy."

SIGNATURE OF OBSERVER _____ DATE _____

SIGNATURE OF TEACHER _____ DATE _____
(Teacher's signature does not indicate agreement with statements above.)

While descriptive writeups can take different forms (see for example Acheson and Gall's, 1980, discussion of the use of selective verbatim and wide-lens techniques), the important point is that this skill is absolutely crucial to classroom observation. As Evertson and Holley (1981, p. 104) explain the advantages of narrative methods and their importance in effective teacher evaluation:

> The narrative methods have several advantages over the other methods of recording. First, there is the value of its natural approach, which allows an understanding of the classroom in terms that are easily communicated to participants. Second is its holistic perspective. Category systems, for example, generally yield only the amounts of designated teacher behavior and usually abstract it from the particular contexts in which this behavior is embedded. However, the contexts in which particular kinds of teacher behavior occur are very important. For example, it is important to know not simply how much teacher probing occurs and in what situations. If teacher behavior is abstracted from the context in which it occurs, understanding of teacher behavior may be limited. Category systems, in recording only the frequency of designated types of behavior, thus leave an important gap that must be filled. Narrative systems, on the other hand, are able to preserve the original sequencing of behavior and the contexts in which it occurs, offering a much less selective and more holistic perspective on classroom phenomena. The importance of this perspective for the evaluation of teaching cannot be emphasized too much. Teachers and students do not simply behave in the classroom; they behave in response to the classroom environment, and any evaluation that fails to take account of this will be somewhat inadequate.

4. The way feedback is presented to the teacher directly affects the supervisor-teacher relationship and the teacher's willingness to participate in instructional improvement.

In successful teacher evaluation systems, formal feedback from the supervisor to the teacher occurs in two separate, but related types of conferences—the post-observation conference and the final conference at the conclusion of the evaluation period. There are two basic differences in these conferences. In the post-observation conference, the data used are based on the single observation that just occurred. The final conference is built on all the data collected over the full evaluation period. Another difference is that the post-observation conference has a formative evaluation emphasis and can be conducted with a colleagial orientation. On the other hand, the final conference is summative, and a judgment must be rendered by a supervisor. The threatening nature of summative judgments often makes it difficult for a final conference to be as productive as it might. In spite of the differences between the two types of conferences, there is a set of concepts, principles, and techniques applicable to either type of feedback situation.

It is important for supervisors to have an overall perspective on the purposes of conferences. In effective evaluation systems, supervisors believe evaluation is primarily a cooperative activity. Providing feedback is no different. As Hunter (1980) suggests, "The same principles of learning apply to teachers as apply to students." Teachers must be involved, encouraged, reinforced, and made to feel successful. Hyman (1975, p. 146–149) lists characteristics of helpful and meaningful feedback, especially as it should occur during supervisory conferences.

1. Focus feedback on the actual performance of the teacher rather than on his personality. Here, you should utilize your written and mental notes gathered during your observations. Use words which refer to the teacher's actions rather than his qualities as a person.

2. Focus feedback on observations rather than assumptions, inferences, or explanations. It is important to focus on what you heard or saw rather than on what you assumed went on or what you inferred was the meaning or explanation behind the performance. If you do make some interpretations based on your observations, then clearly identify them and ask the teacher to offer his own interpretations and comments. Preferably the observations you cite should be your own, rather than what someone else observed and passed on to you for transmission to the teacher. This focus will keep you on what you have observed rather than on motives, and thus the teacher will not be as defensive or threatened.

3. Focus feedback on description rather than evaluation. Since the purpose of feedback is to alert the teacher to what effect his performance is having, it is necessary to be descriptive rather than judgmental. In giving feedback, your task is to report on what is going on rather than on how well things are going. Description within a particular framework is non-evaluative.

4. Focus feedback on the specific and concrete rather than the general and abstract. Feedback which is specific and concrete is helpful because the teacher can handle it himself. He can place the information in a time and place context and examine it there. He can make his own generalizations if he wishes. This situation is not nearly as threatening to the teacher as a generalization made by you, conveying the message of a trend over time, which may appear to be irreversible.

5. Focus feedback on the present rather than the past. Feedback, which is related to remembered teaching situations, is meaningful. If the teacher no longer remembers the events described in your observation, then he cannot use the feedback well. Your feedback should come soon after you observe and can report to the teacher. Then the teacher will still remember the events and be able to tie the feedback into a time and place context, thus enhancing the meaning of your remarks.

6. Focus feedback on sharing of information rather than on giving advice. If you create an atmosphere of sharing, that you wish to offer what you have to the teacher for mutual consideration, then you create a non-threatening situation. If the feedback is shared information, then the teacher is free to use it as he sees fit in light of your overall conference comments. If you give advice, you

are telling the teacher what to do. This sets up a threatening situation, since you show yourself to be better than he is by removing his freedom of action.

7. Focus feedback on alternatives rather than "the" best path. When you focus on alternatives, you offer freedom of action to the teacher. You do not restrict him to your chosen path. The teacher is then free to choose from the alternatives explored which will best suit him and the situations he has in his classroom. He maintains his professional dignity and can accept the feedback without much threat.

8. Focus feedback on information and ideas phrased in terms of "more or less" rather than "either-or." More or less terminology shows that there is a continuum along which the teacher's actions fall. Either-or terminology connotes an absolute situation of two extremes without any middle ground. More or less terminology is more appropriate to education where there are few, if any, situations with absolute positions. The many complex variables in teaching require us to keep a sliding continuum in mind without a predetermined extreme position.

9. Focus feedback on what the teacher, the receiver, needs rather than on what you, the sender, need to get off your chest. Since the purpose of feedback is to alert the teacher about his performance, you must keep him in mind. Even though you may have several things on your mind which will impart a sense of release to you, your first consideration must be the meaningfulness of the feedback to the teacher. If you must get a few things off your chest, perhaps a separate conference or casual meeting would be better so as to differentiate the feedback session from your release session.

10. Focus feedback on what the teacher can use and manage rather than on all the information you have gathered. Though you have much data, you must resist the temptation to overwhelm the teacher with your observations. The purpose of feedback will be destroyed if you overload the teacher and he feels helpless in the face of too much feedback. Keep the amount of feedback to a manageable level, the level which the teacher, not you, can handle.

11. Focus feedback on modifiable items rather than on what the teacher cannot do anything about. This point is obvious yet necessary and important. There is no value to the teacher in focusing on behavior which he cannot change. He will only feel that there is no hope. By focusing on what he can modify you offer him the opportunity to change and feel successful. This will create a positive atmosphere about feedback.

12. Focus feedback on what the teacher requests from you rather than on what you could impose upon him. If at all possible, concentrate on the information which the teacher requests from you. His request is a sign of interest and care. This information and any subsequent change in action can serve as a springboard into other meaningful aspects.

13. Check the feedback you give by asking the teacher to summarize the points for both of you. An excellent technique during a feedback session is to ask the teacher to summarize the main ideas raised between you. You will be able to check on what has been said. You will have a good way of gaining insight about the 12 suggestions listed above.

In the same vein, Griffith (1973) maintains that a good conference resembles a good lesson. The roles of a teacher in the classroom and the supervisor in a conference are similar. Nowhere is this more evident than in the need for some form of planning prior to the conference. Borrowing from Maier (1958), Griffith lists three types of supervisory conferences.

In the *Tell and Persuade* type of conference, supervisors act as judge and salesperson. They communicate their evaluation of a lesson (or the whole year's activities) and then try to persuade the teacher that they are right. This style is most effective with beginning teachers who are more likely to want direct feedback that will tell them exactly how they are doing and specifically on what things they need to work. This method is not particularly effective with experienced teachers. Unfortunately, this style is the one most often associated with common law evaluation systems and, as such, tends to be used in completely inappropriate situations.

A second type of conference is called the *Tell and Listen* approach, which consists of two parts. First the supervisor reports judgments of the teacher's strengths and weaknesses. This is done without interruption from the teacher. Then the teacher has time to report her or his reactions to the supervisor's remarks. The supervisor should listen without interruption except to make summarizing comments from what the teacher has said or to ask questions that will help the teacher clarify his or her feelings. Assumed here is a cathartic value in the expression of emotions—the teacher is more likely to improve after getting rid of defensive reactions.

The third type of conference deals with the concept of *Problem-Solving*. The purpose of a problem-solving conference is to solve a teaching-learning problem. The discussion is directed at the job or problem to be solved, not at the teacher. The supervisor acts as a helper rather than as an evaluator. In this type of format, teachers are made to feel free to describe their concerns and problems because they recognize that the supervisor's function is to help, not pass judgment. This style is certainly most amenable to many of the concepts discussed in this book. But as emphasized throughout, while certain supervisory practices and behaviors seem to dominate in effective evaluation systems, there are always situations where other procedures may be more appropriate. This fact reinforces the notion that just like a teacher, a supervisor has a bag of tools containing the practice, procedure, or style that best fits the situation. As an aid to the supervisor's bag of tools, these three types of supervisory conferences are compared in Figure 14, which is from Griffith (1973, p. 103–104) and adapted from original work done by Norman Maier (1958).

Figure 14. Three Types of Supervisory Conferences

Method	1 Tell and Persuade	2 Tell and Listen	3 Problem-Solving
Role of Interviewer:	Judge	Judge	Helper
Objective	To communicate evaluation To persuade a teacher to improve	To communicate evaluation	To stimulate growth and development in a teacher
Assumptions	Teacher desires to correct weaknesses if he knows them Any person can if he chooses	People will change if defensive feelings are removed	Growth can occur without correcting faults Discussing job problems leads to improved performance
Reactions	Defense behavior suppressed Attempts to cover hostility	Defensive behavior expressed Teacher feels accepted	Problem-solving behavior
Skills	Salesmanship Patience	Listening and reflecting feelings Summarizing	Listening and reflecting feelings Reflecting ideas Using exploratory questions Summarizing
Attitude	People profit from criticism and appreciate it	One can respect the feelings of others if one understands them	Discussion develops new ideas and mutual interests
Motivation	Use of positive or negative incentives or both (Extrinsic in that motivation is added to the job itself)	Resistance to change reduced Positive incentive (Extrinsic and some intrinsic motivation)	Increased freedom Increased responsibility (Intrinsic motivation in that interest is inherent in the task)
Gains	Success most probable when teacher respects interviewer	Develops favorable attitude to superior which increases probability of success	Almost assured of improvement in some respects
Risks	Loss of loyalty Inhibition of independent judgment Face-saving problems created	Need for change may not be developed	Teacher may lack ideas Change may be other than what supervisor had in mind
Values	Perpetuates existing practices and values	Permits interviewer to change his views in the light of teacher's responses Some upward communication	Both learn since experience and views are pooled Change is facilitated

There are a number of relatively simple concepts that can significantly increase the effect of feedback on teachers. For instance:

- How to open and close conferences
  (Kindsvatter and Wilin, 1981)
- Where and when conferences should be conducted
  (Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski, 1980)
- The physical arrangements most conducive to effective communicating
  (Hyman, 1975)
- Uses of direct and indirect supervisory approaches
  (Blumberg and Amidon, 1965; Acheson and Gall, 1980)
- How to handle negative feedback
  (Goldhammer, Anderson, Krajewski, 1980)
- Different types of supervisory conferences and when they are most appropriate
  (Hunter, 1980)

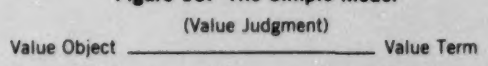
With respect to the final conference, the highlight of the evaluation activity should *not* be the final writeup. *No written evaluation should ever be composed by the supervisor until after the final conference*. Most of us talk better than we write. Supervisors should enter final conferences armed with all the data that have been accumulated throughout the evaluation period. Hopefully there are no surprises here for the teacher, since he or she has been involved in the process all along. These data would include the original goals, all records of contacts between the teacher and supervisor that grew out of these goals, and any other data that accumulated as the teacher and the supervisor interacted. At this point the concepts and principles of effective conferencing should be functional. As Acheson and Gall (1980) indicate, "having important information to discuss is the essential ingredient of a successful feedback conference." During the analyzing, interpreting, and joint decision-making as to what will happen until next time, the supervisor can verbally elaborate points, use examples, provide nonverbal cues, and generally address issues in a fuller, more expressive and understandable manner than time, space, and ability allow most of us when we write. At the conclusion of the conference, the supervisor and teacher can jointly sum up what has occurred so that both are clear as to what just happened and what was just said. The supervisor can then write up what they have discussed in a final evaluation report and put it in the teacher's mailbox for review and approval. There should be no surprises for the teacher in the final write-up in that everything should have been fully discussed in the conference. Too often write-ups done before the conference are read by the teacher prior to the beginning of discussion. Since written

statements can so easily be misunderstood, the teacher is forced into a defensive posture before the conference is even under way. Writing the evaluation after the conference also emphasizes instructional improvement rather than the summative evaluation.

A second suggestion for final evaluations deals with the way they are written. Griffith (1973) offers a lengthy discussion and some useful examples, although overall very little of value is available. Certainly the ability to construct useful narratives based on classroom observation is a skill that would undoubtedly carry over to evaluation reports. But there is an important difference between descriptive narratives used in formative evaluation situations and the use of value terms as required for summative evaluation write-ups.

By definition, an evaluation contains valuing (Meux, 1974). The worth of an evaluation can be determined in part by the weight given to the valuing term or expression, as shown in Figure 15.

Figure 15. The Simple Model



Basically, the model indicates that a value term applied to a value object results in a value judgment. The vertical line represents the logical support given to the value judgment by the fact and the criterion together. In other words, for a value judgment to be acceptable, it must be supported by some fact and the criterion that makes the fact relevant. Consider this typical statement from a written evaluation report: "John did a good job of maintaining classroom control." Basically, it tells us nothing. What does a "good job" mean? What it means to the writer could mean something completely different to the reader. Written evaluations that have impact and credibility must provide support for all value statements. Using the model in Figure 15, the statement should have been written as follows:

Figure 16. The Expanded Model

Classroom Control (VALUE OBJECT)	Good Job (VALUE TERM)
(FACT) John established a clear set of classroom rules, a clear set of consequences for violations of those rules, and consistently applied those rules and consequences.	(CRITERION) There is a relationship between classroom management and student achievement.

In the actual written report it could look like this: *John did a good job of maintaining classroom control. For example, he developed a clear set of classroom rules and an accompanying set of consequences for the violation of those rules. Throughout the evaluation period he consistently enforced these rules with the appropriate punishment.*

As would be the case in most valuing situations dealing with classroom teaching, the criterion against which the fact is judged does not need to be explicitly stated. In most instances the criterion is so obvious that it does not require explication.

Value judgments whenever possible should be supported by example, anecdote, or description. The simple model is exactly that, simple. But it provides a framework for supervisors in providing summative evaluation reports to teachers.

Traditionally, observation has been the dominant method for collecting data about teaching. Because of this tradition and the fact that it is practical and usually reliable, it will likely continue to dominate data collection. However, schools are increasingly looking at other methods of data collection. A discussion of these alternative methods grows out of the next commonality.

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COMMONALITY 7:

The Use of Additional Sources of Data

Most districts with evaluation systems have made a conscious effort to use additional sources of data in collecting information about classroom performance. While observation has been the dominant method of collecting formal data about teaching, there are other data gathering methods that can be helpful, if not essential, to the establishment of an effective instructional improvement effort. Teaching and learning are complex acts that occur in many forms and contexts. To be studied in as full a manner as possible, teaching needs to be looked at in a variety of ways.

There are seven broad techniques for collecting data in teacher evaluation. All have some logic and value, but not all of them are practical as a regular part of a teacher evaluation system. Obviously, observation is one of the seven. Since observation is discussed at length in Commonality 6, it is not included in this section. The other six options can be used in addition to observation.

Parent Evaluation

Principals evaluate teachers, teachers evaluate teachers, students evaluate teachers, so why not parents? It seems only fair that taxpayers, particularly parents of students attending schools, should have the opportunity to formally evaluate the performance of teachers. Logically this seems legitimate, but there is often a difference between logic and practicality. A number of attempts have been made to include parent evaluation as a part of an overall appraisal system. In most cases it has produced slight and indifferent involvement and feedback that has not differed in any significant way from more conventional procedures.

One of the more visible attempts at parent evaluation was conducted in the Berkeley, California, school district. Parents had the opportunity to

complete a questionnaire asking for evaluative judgments on a number of teacher behaviors, such as: Has the teacher made you aware of his or her objectives for the semester? Did the teacher respond in a reasonable time to a note or phone call from you? Then the parents were invited to observe their child's teacher in the classroom, but they could do so only after completing a course in how to observe teaching. Only 64 out of approximately 15,000 parents actually did observe teachers in action. The parents' feedback offered nothing that wasn't already known, and it appeared that the most significant benefit of the program was its public relations value (Abramson, 1976).

It would seem that the potential outcomes from parent involvement in teacher evaluation are not significant enough to outweigh the logistical and political implications. If school districts want to encourage parent input, then they should hold general meetings or send out questionnaires. Also, while it seems reasonable to encourage parents to visit classrooms, it should be done within a public relations structure and not within a framework of anything so politically sensitive as teacher evaluation.

Peer Evaluation

There is a paucity of information on the state of peer evaluation. While this concept is not new in education, few researchers have chosen to study it. The information that does exist is somewhat confusing because of the interchangeable use of the terms "peer evaluation" and "peer supervision." By definition, these terms represent different activities, although they occur basically in the same form.

There is an almost unanimous objection to the concept of observation and evaluation of a teacher's classroom performance by peers. The problem of user acceptance is one of the most frequently mentioned arguments. Cederblom and Lounsbury (1980), however, defend peer evaluation.

> Peers would seem in a natural position to provide reliable, valid evaluation of each other. First, they constitute several raters; second, because of their frequent, close contacts with each other, they see a large number of criterion-relevant behaviors; and third, they see behavior which the traditional evaluator (supervisor) may not see.

Logic aside, they then go on to indicate that most faculty see peer evaluation as a popularity contest based on friendship or general popularity. They cited the negative effect on morale caused by growing distrust among co-workers. Lieberman (1972) quotes teachers who resist peer evaluation: "That's what the administrators get paid for. I'm not going to

do their job." "I refuse to get involved in evaluating people I have to work and interact with everyday."

The reliability of peer ratings is also questioned. Cohen and McKeachie (1980) indicate that "any type of peer evaluation can provide only a partially valid assessment of teaching effectiveness since faculty are not in a position to evaluate all the aspects of their colleague's teaching." Bergman (1980) similarly questions the reliability of peer evaluation. "There is obviously considerable opposition to peer review, primarily because judgments all too often are based on personal, irrelevant factors."

If a school district implements some form of peer evaluation, the cost of training and release time to conference, observe, analyze, and report must be considered. "Members . . . must be properly trained in methods of observing, recording, and analyzing teacher behaviors" (McGee and Eaker, 1977).

Also necessary to consider is the problem of professional association conflicts. "A basic purpose of the teacher organization is to protect teachers from unfair or incompetent evaluation" (Lieberman, 1974). If a teacher receives an unfair evaluation from a peer, who does the teachers organization represent?

Taking all of these problems into account, the concept of peer evaluation seems undesirable and unrealistic. Yet when peer evaluation is defined differently, a more practical and usable additional source of data emerges. The term "peer supervision" seems to fit more closely the recommended use of peers in instructional improvement efforts—observation and input by one or more teachers to another teacher for the specific purpose of assisting that teacher in improving instruction. Reimer (1980) suggests changing the term "peer evaluation" to "peer consultation" with the goal of the act being exclusively improvement. Goldsberry (1980) uses the term "colleague consultation" in much the same manner. In both cases the act of summative evaluation would be completely excluded.

Peer supervision can occur naturally as part of a planned system. It may be informal where two teachers have agreed to observe one another in their classrooms and provide input on an "as needed or asked for" basis. Informal peer supervision has almost always been a natural outcome in team-teaching situations. Teachers in both formal and informal teams who share students, materials, and space very naturally interact and share in ways that often exemplify much of what peer supervision can be.

In goal-setting systems that have been functioning for several years, supervisors have reported joint goal-setting ventures that occur freely

within the evaluation system. For example, several grade level teachers or high school department members get together and decide to set the same goal, which is perfectly acceptable. The process of interaction and sharing that occurs as the supervisor and teacher work together on the joint goal is an excellent example of natural and unforced peer supervision.

Peer supervision has also bee established through more formal and structured activities. Readling and Barone (1967) developed a peer supervision model based on a teaching team whose members conferenced and observed each other. This particular model was designed primarily to support beginning teachers, but the concept could be used with experienced teachers as well. Simon (1979) and Goldsberry (1980) both established peer supervision models built around clinical supervision techniques and processes and successfully implemented their models in real school settings. School districts interested in formal procedures for encouraging or requiring peer supervision should use the Simon or Goldsberry examples, which are excellent sources.

Alfonso (1977), however, indicates that current school organization is not conducive to peer supervision. Most schools are by nature "cellular." This artificial separation causes a considerable amount of physical and emotional space that hinders colleagues from interacting professionally. Another limitation is the unwillingness of teachers to evaluate their peers, even if the evaluation is entirely formative in nature. Peer supervision requires a great deal of open-mindedness and trust among colleagues. These commodities are often lacking in schools, especially now when declining enrollments and resources bring out competitive and survival behavior in teachers.

Alfonso suggests that districts must view their peer supervision programs in the proper perspective. "The key to effective peer supervision is to perceive and utilize this resource as one element in a system-wide effort, and as one component of a multilevel instructional supervisory team" (p. 601).

Goldsberry (1980) offers the most cogent and supportable view of peer supervision. Following a lengthy discussion of the value of on-site instructional improvement activities, the importance of professional interaction among teachers, and the need for colleague rather than administrator involvement in clinical supervision activities, he makes the following summary statement about the value of peer supervision, which he calls colleague consultation.

> Beyond facilitating the collegial interaction requisite for clinical supervision, colleague consultation offers the corollary and related advantages of (1) increasing professional interaction among teachers and (2) providing the structure and opportunity for intervisitation. . . . The problem is that few teachers are routinely given the time and encouragement to discuss teaching—problems, concerns,

successes or philosophies—with other teachers. The benefits of being observed by other teachers and of receiving feedback on one's performance notwithstanding, the provision for professional dialogue among teachers may be the most telling contribution of colleague consultation. Also, the value of observing the teaching methods, techniques, and styles of other teachers (intervisitation) has long been recommended as a professional development tool for in-service teachers (Barr, 1926; Wiles, 1955). That *two* teachers may profit professionally from one observation and related conferences is a unique benefit of colleague consultation.

Using Alfonso (1977) and Goldsberry (1980) as examples, a review of the literature on peer supervision suggests that it has great potential. Practically there are some clear limitations to its implementation that must be carefully viewed within the context of what each local district wants from its evaluation or instructional improvement system. Certainly peer evaluation defined and implemented as peer supervision or consultation can be a valuable additional source of data. In keeping with the practical orientation of this book, it would seem best to allow peer supervision to occur naturally within the structure of an effective evaluation system. The increased technical talk and professional interest in teaching that seems to occur as a result of the narrowed focus on teaching (Commonality 5) and the collaborative and nonthreatening nature of the practical goal-setting approach (Commonality 4) is a clear forerunner of the increased use of colleague feedback. Districts that have developed evaluation systems around the commonalities report significant increases in teacher professional interaction and peer consultation. This sort of informal encouragement seems to offer the best chance for peer supervision to be nurtured. Perhaps later in the life of an evaluation system more formal attempts to develop peer supervision could be developed.

Student Performance

There is no question that data about student learning are an important source of information about the effect of teaching. But, like so many other issues concerned with teaching and learning, the logic of the idea is often overwhelmed by the practical and political implications.

Glass (1974) presents a powerful and logical argument against student performance data being used for teacher evaluation. His article is one of the few that discusses both standardized testing and teacher performance tests. School district officials should read this material before considering any systematic collection of student data as part of an evaluation process.

Most of the criticism directed against using student performance data focus on how the data are collected and used. There appears to be general consensus as to the need and value of collecting student performance

information, but the problem is how best to incorporate such a controversial source of data into the system. To maintain emphasis on instructional improvement that characterizes effective evaluation systems, an informal approach to monitoring and using student performance data seems most useful. The use of current teaching research and the cooperative development of goals will, in many instances, stimulate a need for student performance data. The teacher effectiveness research and the Hunter recommendations for lesson design also emphasize checking for understanding as a necessary ingredient in effective teaching.

In daily teaching, very natural and continuous collections of student performance are routine. They include such things as the monitoring of student response during questioning activities and guided practice and the grading of student homework assignments, quizzes, and tests. Certainly these methods are much less formal than standardized tests and less precise than specifically constructed teacher performance tests. Nevertheless, they still provide immediate feedback on student learning that teachers can use regularly to make instructional decisions. Supervisors need to show teachers in a very practical way how valuable and nonthreatening such student performance feedback can be.

This natural use of student performance data helps instill in teachers a respect for the value of monitoring student learning as well as trust in supervisors and systems that encourage the use of such data in a formative manner. This approach is especially important in the first two years of a new evaluation system. Again, just as with peer supervision, the best way to gain acceptance for the use of an additional or alternative source of data that has some controversy attached to it is to encourage its natural use within the system. Then later, as more sophisticated and reliable forms of measuring student performance are available, the groundwork will have been set for their acceptance.

Self-Evaluation

Brighton (1965, p. 25) summarizes the major reasons for emphasizing self-evaluation:

1. When self-evaluation is utilized, the teacher shares with his professional colleagues the responsibility for improving his performance. Academic freedom and professional recognition require that the teacher himself assume this responsibility.
2. Teachers, particularly those aspiring to enhance professional status, regard self-evaluation as the most acceptable type of evaluation.
3. Self-evaluation is the ultimate goal of any teacher evaluation program that seeks to promote better performance and to enhance professional status.

> Teachers are like other professional people. The best and only effective motive for change is one that comes from within (p. 25).

Brighton (1965) also lists some of the major *problems* of self-evaluation:

1. Many teachers, particularly those who are marginal or insecure, tend to overrate themselves. Each tends to think that he is doing as well as he can under the circumstances.
2. Emotionally secure teachers tend to underrate themselves.
3. Few are able to be objective in assessing their own performance, with the result that self-evaluation is both inaccurate and unreliable.

Most of the inadequacies attached to self-evaluation are not weaknesses in the concept. Rather they result from the misunderstanding or misuse of the concept in school settings.

It is difficult to ascertain the success of systematic attempts to foster self-evaluation, primarily because so few exist. (See Bodine, 1973, or Carroll, 1981, for discussions of systematic self-assessment models.) Unfortunately, in looking at self-assessment efforts in schools, more cautions than recommendations emerge.

One of the most obvious misuses of self-evaluation occurs in districts that have made it a requirement. The usual format is for each teacher to complete some form of self-rating (taking the district's common law rating scale and completing it on themselves), self-report (an open-ended written statement in which teachers rate their own strengths and weaknesses), or develop goals based on the teacher's perception of needed areas of improvement. The form is then collected and put in the teacher's file where it remains untouched. There is no follow-up, no discussion, no attention given to the completed document. This bogus activity remains in effect in many districts year after year. In true self-evaluation, teachers collect their own data and make their own judgments about their own teaching. *Like all sources of data, self-evaluation data are most effective when they are shared and discussed with someone else.*

In another form of self-evaluation, teachers compare their self-assessment rating with the rating made of them by their supervisor. This is an extremely debilitating act which should be abandoned. Supposedly, the rationale is that if a teacher does a self-rating on some instrument and then compares it with the rating made by the supervisor, any discrepancies will have a motivating influence on the teacher. (See Hyman, 1975, Chapter 4, for a discussion of the Tuckman Teacher Feedback Form, which encourages the use of compared ratings.)

This use of self-evaluation is counterproductive. It puts supervisors in an untenable position and promotes an atmosphere of conflict that is almost impossible to overcome. In order to prevent conflict, supervisors end up spending a great deal of time trying to guess how the teachers will

rate themselves so they can make their ratings as similar as possible. After all, how fair can it be for a teacher to perform an honest self-evaluation, only to be informed subsequently that the supervisor's evaluation is the only valid one? The pressure on both the teacher and the supervisor as they approach the comparative conference puts an enormous burden on what may be an already fragile relationship. This use of self-evaluation should be avoided at all costs.

One successful use of self-evaluation occurs prior to the initial goal-setting conference between the supervisor and the teacher. Even after initial training, teachers sometimes have difficulty finding an area of concern or interest that might serve as a basis for creating a goal. Using a form of ipsative or forced choice scaling, it is possible to focus a teacher's attention on specific aspects of teaching. (See Thompson, 1977, for a discussion of the ipsative measurement technique in teacher evaluation systems.) A number of districts have adapted an instrument that forces teachers to rank themselves on seven teaching variables (McGreal, 1975). Figure 17 illustrates an ipsative instrument that requires the teacher to make choices among a series of similar but distinct teaching behaviors.

Figure 17. Teacher Appraisal Instrument.

Based on your perspective, rank yourself on the seven criteria. Your view of your strongest point should be designated 1, the next strongest 2, and so forth. Each number, 1 through 7, must be used and no number may be repeated.

—CLARITY: The ability to clearly, logically, rationally present material to the students. The instructional materials are compatible with desired outcomes and the cognitive level of instruction is appropriate for the students.

—VARIABILITY: The ability to match method with content and with the students. A variety of materials is available for use. The teacher is able to display a variety of techniques, and they are matched to the learning ability of the students.

—ENTHUSIASM: The teacher exhibits a clear, dynamic physical presence in the room. The teacher is vigorous and animated during classtime and displays involvement, excitement, and interest in the subject matter.

—CLIMATE: The teacher promotes an atmosphere in the room that encourages all students to feel free to be a part of the class. There is an obvious concern for involvement levels and high success rates. Praise and reinforcement are given appropriately. All students are provided opportunities to succeed.

—TASK ORIENTATION: The teacher's room is characterized by a focus on cognitive tasks. There is a business-like environment where students are continuously engaged in activities directly related to the desired outcomes.

—METHODS OF EVALUATION: The teacher constantly monitors student understanding and student progress. A variety of both formal and informal techniques is used and the data are collected to help provide input into making instructional decisions.

—CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT: Rules and procedures are clear and understandable. Class time is planned from bell-to-bell in order to maximize engagement rates. Student activities and work are continuously monitored and high behavioral expectations are established.

Using the completed instrument at the goal-setting conference, the teacher and supervisor can look at behaviors ranked lowest by the teacher as possible areas for goals. This is a much more appropriate use of self-assessment data. It is a follow-up to an activity that encourages teachers to make their own judgments about their teaching, and it is very nonthreatening. One of the several advantages to the ipsative technique is that it is ranking only by the teacher. There is no attempt by the supervisor to rank the teacher. It has no administrative value since no two people can be compared on it. Both this use of self-evaluation and this form of instrumentation are particularly promising because they have been successfully implemented in local teacher evaluation systems.

Increasing the teacher's ability to be self-reflective is a desired outcome of any effective teacher evaluation system. Self-evaluation will become automatic if the district develops an evaluation system that encourages technical teaching talk and cooperative, professional interaction between supervisors and teachers. Out of these activities will emerge teachers who have learned and practiced the skills necessary to be self-reflective. Self-evaluation is and can be a naturally occurring event, especially if the evaluation/supervision experience and the training provided by the system allow it to happen spontaneously.

Student Evaluation

The use of student evaluations of teachers has long been a recommended source of data about teaching. Like most of the other sources discussed in this commonality, there would seem to be considerable logic in asking students to provide evaluative judgments about their teachers. Unfortunately, as Aleamoni (1981) notes, "most of the research and use of student rating forms has occurred at the college and university level, so generalizations to other educational levels must be left to the discretion of the reader." In the judgment of many, collecting information from students is an exceptionally powerful source of data about classrooms (Walberg, 1969; Dalton, 1971; McNeil and Popham, 1973; Farley, 1981). Walberg (1974) offers the following justification.

> First, the student is the intended recipient of instruction and other cues in the classrom, particularly social stimuli; and he may be the best judge of the learning context. Compared with a short-term observer, he weighs in his judgment not only the class as it presently is but how it has been since the beginning of the year. He is able to compare from the child-client point of view his class with those of other small groups of which he is a member. He and his classmates form a group of twenty or thirty sensitive, well-informed judges of the class; an outside observer is a single judge who has far less data and, though highly trained and systematic, may be insensitive to what is important in a particular class.

While attitudes regarding the value of student ratings vary, the average elementary and secondary teacher is uncomfortable with the concept. Teachers generally lack faith in the student's ability to accurately rate their performance. In many respects, their fears are justified. There is not a great deal of support for the accuracy of student ratings, and the support that does exist is not strong enough to justify using student ratings in any summative evaluation sense.

Once again, the kind of data collected and how they are used are the key elements in the acceptability and usefulness of student input. *The major ingredient for the successful use of student evaluations is the acceptance of the idea that students are much more reliable in describing life in the classroom than they are in making evaluative judgments of the teacher.* This view is reinforced by Walbert (1974): "Since 1966, a series of studies have demonstrated that student perceptions of the classroom learning environment can be measured reliably and that environmental measures are valid predictors of learning." The key phrase is "student perceptions of the learning environment"—not "student perceptions or judgments of the teacher's performance." It is important to collect students' judgments about what they are most able to assess, the environment and climate of the room in which they are present every day. This type of data is much less threatening to teachers since it does not ask students to evaluate them. Also, the discussion of the results of this form of data collection must be almost exclusively formative rather than summative since the learning environment in a room, which can be manipulated by the teacher, can also be determined by factors other than the teacher's performance (Walberg, 1974, p. 74).

Unfortunately, teacher rating forms are typically characterized by questions that refer specifically to the teacher:

	strongly agree	*agree*	*disagree*	*strongly disagree*
1. The teacher knows the subject matter.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. The teacher has favorites.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. The teacher is not very interesting.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. The teacher emphasizes a lot of memorization.	_____	_____	_____	_____

The wording of the statements always emphasizes "the teacher." This forces students to personalize their judgment of the teacher rather than the situation in general. Their attitudes toward the teacher are much more likely to be based on emotional responses that may fluctuate greatly from day to day. On the other hand, statements that do not specifically

mention the teacher but allow students to relate perceptions of conditions in the room offer a better chance for more accurate and consistent responses. For instance:

	strongly agree	*agree*	*disagree*	*strongly disagree*
1. I feel my ideas are important.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Everyone gets a chance to answer questions.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. I get help when I need it.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. I am afraid to answer questions.	_____	_____	_____	_____

These statements come from a homemade instrument created by a teacher and a supervisor to provide student perceptions on areas that were relevant to a particular goal. (Specifically, the teacher wanted to increase students' level of involvement.) While homemade instruments lack the proven reliability and validity that can be found in research-based or some commercial student evaluation forms, they still can provide helpful data. And they can be tailored to focus on a particular aspect of teaching or on a condition that may be unique to a specific classroom.

A number of established instruments for measuring student perceptions of the learning environment offer excellent examples of descriptive statements. The Learning Environment Inventory (LEI) (Anderson, 1973), the My Class Inventory (Anderson, 1973; Maguire, Goetz, and Manos, 1972), and the Class Activities Questionnaire (Walberg, House, and Steele, 1973) are perhaps the best and most useful. School districts would do well to make these instruments available to their teachers and supervisors.

Most procedures for collecting student input rely on a paper-and-pencil format. All of the examples provided in this section ask the student to read a statement and then mark their perception on some preestablished scale. If the reading level of the statements is adjusted to the students completing the form, there is no reason that evaluations cannot be collected even from primary grade students. Nonreaders can be involved as well, if the instrument and procedure are adapted to them.

Most student evaluation instruments use scales that call for high inference ratings rather than low inference counts or frequencies. (See Rosenshine and Furst, 1971, for a discussion of low and high inference measures.) Walberg (1974) argues in favor of high inference ratings:

> The LEI scales are "high inference" measures in that they require subjective ratings of perceived behavior, unlike "low inference" measures which are objective counts of observed behavior. . . . Low-inference scales have the advantage that, if valid, they directly suggest changes in specific teacher behavior.

However, low-inference measures are generally substantially less valid in predicting learning outcomes than our high inference measures. . . . Why? Perhaps because counts of praise or questions measure quantity rather than quality, and may have limited reliance to student abilities, interests, and needs.

Farley (1981) offers the use of student interviews as an alternative to paper-pencil methods. In this procedure, randomly selected students are interviewed about programs in the school or their perceptions of why and how they do various things in school. Again, students are not asked to evaluate teachers. This method is most useful in getting reactions to broader questions about the schoolwide environment, but it is an interesting idea that deserves consideration.

Collection of student input is increasingly regarded as a valuable source of data in successful teacher evaluation systems. It would seem especially important for beginning or nontenured teachers to be required to complete this activity with at least one of their classes each semester. This experience can provide beginners with information about areas of teaching in which they have received little training. In addition, it can build in them a respect for the usefulness of student input, especially when collected in a nonthreatening environment. Hopefully it will also encourage them to make it a regular part of their own self-monitoring as their teaching careers advance.

Because of the nature of tenured, experienced teachers and because they are at a different stage of development, student evaluations should not be required of them. Student feedback should be an alternative or additional source of data that is recommended or used only as appropriate to the goals established by the teacher and the supervisor. This "by joint agreement and as needed" approach to the use of student evaluation is another illustration to teachers that their supervisor and their evaluation system complement the instructional improvement attitude that characterizes effective practice.

Artifact Collection

As time as a variable in learning has become a more visible concept, the way teachers and students spend their instructional time in classrooms has been studied in a more systematic and accurate fashion (Rosenshine, 1980). Current data suggest that K–12 students spend as much classroom instructional time interacting with teacher materials as they do being directly taught by the teacher. In K–5 classrooms students spend over 70 percent of their day interacting with teacher-developed or selected materials. In grades 6–12, students can spend between 40 and 60 percent of allocated instructional time with teacher materials. Efforts must be made to develop instructional improvement strategies and

classroom supervisory practices that more adequately reflect these realities of classroom life.

Typically during pre-service and inservice training and during supervisory encounters, teachers are encouraged to think of teaching only as a verbal act. Planning skills for teachers are equated to their ability to construct and follow a well-conceived lesson plan. It is not uncommon to see a teacher spend 30 to 45 minutes developing a daily lesson plan that contains the objectives of the lesson; an outline of the content, sequence, and form of instructional input to be presented; and a series of examples, demonstrations, or other forms of modeling behavior that will be used. This type of planning is then often followed by a cursory review of the seatwork or independent practice activity that will follow the "teacher talk." Too often assignments are given automatically—either because they are recommended by the curriculum package or they are given out of habit by the teacher. ("I always use this ditto the third day of my Alaska Unit.") Not that all materials currently used by teachers are inappropriate or ineffective. Rather, we need to recognize the importance of learning activities that rely heavily on teacher selected materials (Cummings, 1980; Rosenshine, 1981). It is imperative that teacher evaluation systems regularly include a systematic analysis and discussion of classroom materials.

As discussed earlier observation is an important supervisory technique that should continue to dominate our data collection regarding classrooms. However, observation reinforces the emphasis on the verbal aspect of teaching since most observations are conducted while the teacher is involved in direct forms of instruction. In order to obtain information that reflects this more comprehensive view of teaching, *artifact collection* can be an alternative or additional source of data.

Artifacts are defined as simple objects, usually tools or ornaments, that show human workmanship or modification as distinguished from a natural object. The term "artifact" connotes utility. Broadly, artifacts are the tools of teaching, additional means to an end. The term is important because it promotes a sense of building, selecting or modifying for direct use with or for people. Teaching artifacts include all instructional materials teachers use to facilitate student learning—everything from commercial textbooks, workbooks, and supplementary texts to learning kits, maps, audiovisual aids, films, dittoed material, study guides, question sheets, worksheets, problem sets, quizzes, and tests. While all of these artifacts are and should be an essential part of teaching, artifact collection as discussed here deals almost exclusively with those materials in the latter part of the list. The "larger" the artifact, the more time and effort is spent in evaluating and selecting it. Textbooks, workbooks,

supplementary books, and the like traditionally are reviewed carefully at the building or district level before being officially selected and purchased. Our concern here is not for the quality of those initial selections but for the day-to-day use of those materials in student work. For example, artifact collection would include a review and discussion of such things as whether numbers 1–15 on page 68 of the text or workbook is an appropriate seatwork activity. This is the type of question that confronts teachers daily. These decisions must be reviewed in a more systematic fashion.

Generally, teachers assume responsibility for collecting artifacts for an entire teaching unit or for a three-week time block in a single class. They would include such things as dittoed or mimeographed teacher-developed materials; notes of in-class seatwork or homework assignments taken from commercially published works (page 65, sentences 1–9, Warriner's handbook, in-class assignment, November 15, 1982); copies of quizzes or exams given during the collection period; and lists of materials stored in interest centers, laboratories, or computers that were used by the students as seatwork or practice activities. Random samples of the students' efforts on these artifacts would also be collected.

Following the collection of artifacts, the teacher and supervisor should meet to review, analyze, and discuss the materials. Up to this point, it is not difficult to sell the concept, to get the teachers to collect artifacts, or to get supervisors and teachers to see the usefulness of a joint review and discussion about the artifacts. It is the next step that is often difficult: how to tell a "good" artifact from a "bad" one. What perspective or framework can be used to review these materials? Unfortunately, research or even general discussion of artifacts is virtually nonexistent. Artifact collection and analysis emerged as a concept in educational settings through the arguments of program evaluators who advocated naturalistic alternatives in curriculum evaluation (Stake, 1972). One of the few references to the idea as associated with supervisor situations was made by Sergiovanni in 1977. Unfortunately, no one has offered any practical suggestions as to how artifacts might be analyzed.

Yet all is not lost. Suter and Waddell (1981), dealing with a similar concept developed for health professionals, provide guidelines that can be used by supervisors and teachers in analyzing classroom artifacts. The guidelines are organized under three key aspects related to quality: content, design, and presentation. They are necessarily general in order to include criteria for the broad spectrum of artifacts teachers use. They can be applied to consideration of commercially produced items or to teacher-developed products. Because the guidelines are intended to be comprehensive, not every criterion can or should be applied to every artifact.

Figure 18. A Framework For Analyzing the Artifacts of Teaching

Content

Quality of artifacts can be considered from the point of view of content or essential meaning. Some considerations related to quality of content are:

1. Validity. Is the artifact materially accurate and authoritative?
2. Appropriateness. Is the content appropriate to the level of the intended learner?
3. Revelvance. Is the content relevant to the purpose of the lesson?
4. Motivation. Does the artifact stimulate interest to learn more about the subject? Does it encourage ideas for using the material?
5. Application. Does the artifact serve as a model for applying learning outside the instructional situation?
6. Clarity. Is the content free of words, expressions, and graphics that would limit its understandability?
7. Conciseness. Is the artifact free of superfluous material? Does it stick to the point?

Design

Design of artifacts should proceed from an analysis of the content of the lesson or instructional unit. High quality artifacts conform to instructional objectives. The quality of an artifact is the product of its design characteristics, its revelance to instructional objectives, and its application to content.

1. Medium Selection. Is the most appropriate medium used for meeting each objective and presenting each item of content (e.g. films, textbook, teacher-prepared handout)?
2. Meaningfulness. Does the artifact clearly support learning objectives? If so, is this apparent to the learner?
3. Appropriateness. Is the design appropriate to the needs and skill levels of the intended learner? Are time constraints considered in the artifact's design?
4. Sequencing. Is the artifact sequenced logically? Is it employed at the appropriate point in the presentation?
5. Instructional Strategies. Is the artifact format appropriate to the teaching approach? Does its construction incorporate sound learning principles?
6. Engagement. Does the artifact actively engage the learner? Does it reinforce the content with appropriate practice and feedback questions?
7. Evaluation. Is there a plan for evaluating the effectiveness of the artifact when used by the intended learner? Can the success rate for the artifact be easily determined?

Presentation

Presentation considerations include physical and aesthetic aspects of an artifact as well as directions for its use.

1. Effective Use of Time. Is the artifact suitable for the time allotted? Is learner time wasted by wordiness or extraneous information unrelated to learning objectives?
2. Pace. Is the pace appropriate to the level of the learners, neither too fast nor too slow? Does the pace vary inversely with difficulty of content?
3. Aids to Understanding. Are directions clearly explained? Are unfamiliar terms defined? Are important concepts emphasized?
4. Visual Quality. Do the visuals show all educationally significant details? Is composition uncluttered? Does the composition help the learner recognize important content? Are essential details identified through appropriate use of highlighting, color, tone, contrasts, position, motion, or other devices? Is the type size of any text legible from the anticipated maximum viewing distance?
5. Audio Quality. Can the audio component be clearly heard?
6. Physical Quality. Is the artifact durable, attractive, and simple? Are size and shape convenient for hands-on use and storage?

These guidelines should only be used as a general framework during the discussion of artifacts. Certainly each individual artifact cannot relate to every question in the guidelines. This would make the process too tedious. It seems best to categorize the different types of artifacts and to deal just with random samples.

Much research is needed to learn more about the effect of teachers' artifacts on the teaching-learning act. At the early stages of the introduction of this concept in schools, the most positive benefit has been the high level technical-professional talk it generates between teachers and supervisors. Those who have involved themselves in this type of activity report it to be among the most rewarding supervisory experiences they have had.

As with the student evaluation process, beginners and nontenured teachers should be required to collect artifacts at least once each semester. Tenured or experienced teachers might use artifact collection as an additional source of data, as their interest or goals dictate. Goals that deal with success rates, guided practice, independent practice, or engaged time are appropriate for using artifacts as a source of information.

The availability of alternative or additional sources of data is an important part of effective evaluation systems. Of the methods discussed here, parent evaluation seems the least useful, while peer supervision, student performance, and self-evaluation can provide important input. All of these methods have somewhat checkered pasts, and thus demand appropriate use. The most appropriate use is when they are applied naturally within the goal-setting model.

The use of student evaluation and artifact collection also has considerable potential. The areas they address and the discussion the data gained from these methods generates are especially useful for inexperienced teachers. Knowledge of these alternatives and an understanding of how they can best be used is an important part of the supervisor's bag of tools. Successful evaluation systems provide opportunities for these methods to become a regular feature of supervisor-teacher relationships.

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Section III.

Training the Staff and Starting the System

COMMONALITY 8:

A Training Program Complementary to the Evaluation System

Every commonality has, in one way or another, led to this point. Throughout the book, reference is made to the importance of training for all the participants in the system. *There are no secrets in effective evaluation systems.* With the exception of additional time spent with supervisors on their responsibilities in the goal-setting conference, on observation techniques, and on conferencing and feedback skills, administrators and teachers should initially receive approximately the same training.

The sequence of events at this point is important. The evaluation system must first be built and the training program then designed to address the specific understandings and skills that will make the system functional. Focusing the training adds credibility to the idea that the district wants the system to work and is willing to develop the skills to make it succeed. Also, providing training before the system is actually implemented helps participants understand and become familiar with the various parts of the system and their own responsibilities.

The sample evaluation system presented in the Appendix at pages 151–161 reflects the commonalities of effective evaluation systems and is currently being tested in a number of school districts around the country. The remainder of this section outlines a training program that would be appropriate for implementing just such an evaluation system. It is, however, merely an illustration of what might be included. Each district must make its own decisions regarding the nature and extent of its training program. These decisions must necessarily be influenced by the complexity of the evaluation system, the knowledge and skills of the staff, the

strength of attitudes about teacher evaluation (the more negative the feelings, the more training that should be provided), and the financial and human resources available to support and conduct the training.

The Training Program

The following outline addresses the knowledge and skills necessary to implement an evaluation system that reflects the commonalities of successful teacher evaluation systems.

I. Entire Staff (8 hours total)
(Whole-group presentations done by person from outside the district who has worked with the evaluation committee.)

A. Introduction to the System (1 hour)
1. Distribute the evaluation pack; the staff sees the system for the first time.
2. Explain the purpose of the system.
3. Present and discuss each part of the system and the requirements for each.

B. Teaching Focus (3½ hours)
1. Provide initial introduction to teaching research.
2. Give examples of the use of teaching research in setting goals.
3. Stress the importance of focusing attention on instruction and on the high level of teacher involvement that the new system encourages.

C. Goal Setting (1½ hours)
1. Discuss the responsibilities of the supervisor and teacher in goal setting.
2. Discuss the approximate time requirements inherent in the new system.
3. Introduce the various types of goals that can be set and how they should be prioritized.
4. Discuss the strategies of goal setting that the supervisors will be taught.
5. Provide a series of sample goals.

D. Data Collection Methods (1½ hours)
1. Discuss the appropriate use of observations and how they will be conducted.
2. Introduce artifact collection and how it is best used.
3. Discuss appropriate uses of student evaluation and include several different samples.

4. Encourage staff to use other alternatives and provide examples of when they might be appropriate (self-evaluation, peer supervision, student performance).
5. Provide sample goals and examples of plans supervisors and teachers might develop to meet goals.

E. Closing Discussion (½ hour)
1. Discuss how the system will be monitored the first year. Indicate that staff will have an opportunity to provide feedback on the system.
2. Note that training will be continuous. Each year a portion of staff development will be directed at upgrading and enhancing the skills necessary for continued effectiveness.
3. Ask the staff for their full participation so that the system will have a chance to work.

II. Supervisors (1 day total)
(Whole-group presentations, again done by the outsider retained by the evaluation committee.)

A. Remind supervisors of the importance of their attitude to the success of the new system. They must be willing to allow teachers to have equal involvement. They must continually work to display a helping attitude rather than an evaluative one.

B. Review supervisors' specific responsibilities within the system and discuss their approximate time involvements.

C. Specific Skill Training
1. Review goal-setting conference strategies.
2. Practice session: supervisors turn general teacher statements into goals that are focused and manageable.
3. Practice session: supervisors devise appropriate action plans to carry out typical goals.
4. Introduce classroom observation skills.
   a. Supervisors practice their descriptive writing skills.
   b. Introduce and practice using a series of observation instruments.
5. Introduce conferencing skills.
   a. Review clinical supervision techniques, including suggestions for conducting pre- and post-observation conferences.
   b. Discuss techniques for providing positive and negative feedback.
   c. Supervisors practice writing summative evaluations.

This is a general outline of training that would be more than adequate to get the new system started. Whenever possible, this initial training should be conducted by someone from outside the district. An outsider often carries more legitimacy than a local person and is better able to transmit information in a nonthreatening way. As the system is implemented and additional needs emerge, additional training should be provided. The added training each year should also reflect new information coming from the literature. This subsequent training need not be presented by the original trainer; in fact, specialists in the various areas identified as being important would be preferable in this next stage of the system.

Clearly, it does not take significant amounts of time to adequately prepare participants. Certainly the time spent in these training activities has implications far beyond the preparation for successful implementation of the evaluation system. Almost all the recommended training focuses directly on the teaching-learning process and on the enhancement of teacher-supervisor relationships. These are areas of concern and interest that touch almost every facet of effective schools.

The lesson of this commonality is that there is little chance a teacher evaluation system can be effective without a directly related training program.

THE NEXT STEP:

A Short Discussion About Developing and Implementing a New Evaluation System

In most instances, it is best to streamline the procedures for developing a new evaluation system. Rather than naming large numbers of people to serve on a districtwide evaluation committee, organizing a small, workable group of influentials is more effective. These committee members should be selected from teachers and administrators who, by virtue of their competence, teacher association involvement, or charisma, are respected and listened to by their colleagues. In addition, there is often value in including at least one board member in this group. This individual would be able to gain an understanding of the rationale behind whatever is developed and would be likely to serve as an advocate if the procedure goes to the board for approval.

This group should hire and then meet with an outside consultant as soon as possible. The consultant can suggest alternatives and options, and summarize emerging research and current practices that would be pertinent to the committee's efforts. This consultant should stay with the group throughout the development period and serve as a reactor and clarifier during the various stages of development of the new or revised system. The use of an outside expert helps focus the committee's efforts and can significantly hasten the work of the group.

If the new model reflects many of the commonalities presented here, then the most efficient way to start up the system is to put it totally in place from the very beginning. Where the training program has been properly planned and conducted and when the system has been introduced and openly discussed with the entire staff, as suggested in the training program, the teachers and administrators are adequately pre-

pared to start the new system. A one- or two-year startup, where the system is piloted with a few individuals or in a single school, drags the process out too long and does not provide any significant advantage in gaining acceptance of the new program.

The entire process—from establishing the committee, to developing the system, to providing training—can be accomplished in a relatively short time. Ideally, the first two steps would occur during a school year. The introduction and the trained would then be provided at the beginning of the next school year. At that point, the system should be fully operational. As indicated in the training suggestions, the staff needs to understand that the system will be monitored and feedback collected throughout the year. Suggestions for modifying procedures or for providing additional training can then be addressed before the following school year. The outside consultant can be of assistance throughout the monitoring period and should be asked to provide assistance in the analysis of feedback.

Programs based on current teaching research and accepted supervisory practices make sense to most teachers. If the program is properly introduced and if the influentials on the committee give visible support, then almost any staff can be brought to at least a state of neutrality toward the new system. This agreement to be neutral allows teachers to feel free to participate in the process and to be cooperative. Given the historically poor attitudes toward evaluation, this is all that can be asked. A staff that is willing to carry out individual responsibilities for at least the first full cycle of the system can generally be convinced that teacher evaluation can be a useful and productive experience.

Concluding Remarks

There is no area in education that has more potential impact on the improvement of instruction and hence on the improvement of schools than a successful teacher supervision/evaluation system. In many respects it is an idea whose time has come. The procedures discussed and described in this book can provide local school districts with a relatively inexpensive way to work toward the improvement of their schools. This is especially important, given the fact that most districts have been forced into defensive, survivalist postures because of economic conditions. Even in times of declining resources, schools must continue to work toward improving their product. By building a supervision/evaluation system that capitalizes on existing staff, that takes advantage of contemporary research on teaching and learning, the quality of instruction can be enhanced.

There is no reason for districts to continue traditional evaluation practices that have promoted disdain and dissatisfaction among teachers and supervisors. There are better ways to develop and conduct teacher evaluation. *Systems based on the commonalities presented here can make a difference!*

APPENDIX

An Example of an Evaluation System that Reflects the Commonalities of Successful Systems

PHILOSOPHY

The parents, school board members, and staff of _____ are committed to the continuation of the district's strong educational program. An effective teacher evaluation system that focuses on the improvement of instruction is an important component of this instructional program.

While the primary focus of evaluation is to improve instruction, teacher evaluation requires teachers to meet the established performance expectations. This process must be continuous and constructive, and must take place in an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect. The process is a cooperative effort on the part of the evaluator and teacher. It is designed to encourage productive dialogue between staff and supervisors and to promote professional growth and development.

I. MINIMUM PERFORMANCE EXPECTATIONS

An integral part of both tenured and nontenured staffs' employment in the school district is continuous appraisal by their supervisors of their ability to meet minimum performance expectations. As appropriate to the various jobs performed by staff members, the minimum performance expectations include, but are not necessarily limited to, the following:

1. Meets and instructs students at designated locations and times.
2. Develops and maintains a classroom environment commensurate with the teacher's style, norms of the building program, appropriate to the classroom activity, and within the limits of the resources provided by the district.
3. Prepares for assigned classes, and shows written evidence of preparation and implementation on request of the immediate supervisor.
4. Encourages students to set and maintain acceptable standards of classroom behavior.

Special thanks is extended to the Penn-Harris-Madison School Corporation in Mishawaka, Indiana; Pikeland School District, Pittsfield, Illinois; Monticello Public Schools, Monticello, Illinois; West Aurora Public Schools, Aurora, Illinois; and Palos District #118, Palos Park, Illinois, for permission to reproduce parts of their teacher evaluation procedures.

5. Provides an effective program of instruction based on the needs and capabilities of the individuals or student groups involved. This should include, but not be limited to:
   a. Review of previously taught material, as needed.
   b. Presentation of new material.
   c. Use of a variety of teaching materials and techniques.
   d. Evaluation of student progress on a regular basis.
6. Correlates individual instructional objectives with the philosophy, goals, and objectives stated for the district.
7. Takes all necessary and reasonable precautions to protect students, equipment, materials, and facilities.
8. Maintains records as required by law, district policy, and administrative regulations.
9. Assists in upholding and enforcing school rules, administrative regulations.
10. Makes provision for being available to students and parents for education related purposes outside the instructional day when necessary and under reasonable terms.
11. Attends and participates in faculty, department, and district meetings.
12. Cooperates with other members of the staff in planning instructional goals, objectives, and methods.
13. Assists in the selection of books, equipment, and other instructional materials.
14. Works to establish and maintain open lines of communication with students, parents, and colleagues concerning both the academic and behavioral progress of all students.
15. Establishes and maintains cooperative professional relations with others.
16. Performs related duties as assigned by the administration in accordance with district policies and practices.

The appraisal of these minimum expectations will typically be made through a supervisor's daily contact and interaction with the staff member. When problems occur in these areas, the staff member will be contacted by the supervisor to remind the staff member of minimum expectations in the problem area and to provide whatever assistance might be helpful. If the problem continues or reoccurs, the supervisor, in his or her discretion, may prepare and issue to the staff member a written notice setting forth the specific deficiency with a copy to the teacher's file. In the unlikely event that serious, intentional, or flagrant violations of the minimum performance expectations occur, the supervisor, at his or her discretion, may put aside the recommended procedure and make a direct recommendation for more formal and immediate action.

II. IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

This part of the appraisal program uses a positive approach to stimulate self-improvement as well as creating a continuous focus on improved instruction and/or the delivery of instructional support. The supervisor and the staff member share the responsibility for this procedure. The fundamental supervisory activity of this program is the development of specific teaching or direct job related goals between the staff member and the supervisor. Part A in the Attachment [beginning at page 154] discusses current teacher effectiveness research that should serve as

the basis for most teacher goal setting. This appraisal plan is formative (data gathered for the purpose of improving job performance) and bilateral in nature. *Its purpose is to focus on the delivery system of instruction, with the staff member and supervisor working together to increase teaching effectiveness and student learning.*

Required and Recommended Procedures for Part II

1. All nontenured staff will be involved in the goal-setting process each year.
2. All tenured staff will be involved in the goal-setting process every second year. Participation the first year will be determined by alphabetical order in each building. A tenured person may participate in the goal-setting process in successive years if deemed necessary or useful by the supervisor or staff member.
3. This part of the appraisal program will be conducted by the immediate supervisor of the staff member or by a designated representative. Itinerant staff will be appraised by a designated "home" supervisor.
4. The goal-setting conference should be held as early in the year as possible, preferably by October 15. (Each year for nontenured, every other year for tenured.)
5. There are three basic parts to the goal-setting conference:
   a. Establishing goals:
      Nontenured staff. During the conference the supervisor should take the lead in establishing goals. The recommended guidelines for goal setting as described in the Attachment, Part B, should be used.
      Tenured staff. Tenured staff are expected to play an active role in establishing goals. The recommended guidelines for goal setting as described in the Attachment, Part B, should be used. If agreement cannot be reached on the goal(s), the supervisor will have final responsibility.
   b. Determining methods for collecting data relative to the goals: As each goal is established, the means for collecting data to determine progress should be determined by the supervisor and the staff member. The three most recommended methods for collecting data are discussed in the Attachment, Part C.
      Nontenured staff. Each nontenured staff member must be involved in the use of all three of the recommended methods. Those staff members not involved in direct instruction would be excused from this requirement.
      - Observation—each nontenured teacher must be observed in the classroom throughout the year.
      - Artifact collection—once during the school year, all artifacts used or produced during the teaching of one unit will be collected and reviewed with the supervisor.
      - Student descriptive data—once during the school year, information will be gathered from at least one class of students regarding their perceptions of life and work in the classroom.

      Tenured staff. The means for collecting data regarding progress should be discussed and agreed upon by the staff member and the supervisor. The method selected should be appropriate to the goal. There are no specific requirements as to the type or frequency of methods. In those instances where agreement cannot be reached, the supervisor has the final responsibility.

c. A written description of the goal-setting conference:
Part D in the Attachment provides a standard form to be used by the supervisor for writing a description of the goal-setting conference. It should be written during or immediately after the conference and shared with the teacher. It should be submitted at the end of the appraisal period as part of the final appraisal write-up.

6. During the actual appraisal period (following the goal-setting conference to the time of completion of the final appraisal report) records of the interactions, contacts, activities, and so forth between the supervisor and the staff member should be kept. These would include such things as dates and summaries of observations; records of student evaluations; findings from artifact reviews; and summaries of other training contacts with the staff member. It is generally the recording of any and all contacts or data that are appropriate to the methods agreed upon by the supervisor and the staff member during the goal-setting conference.

The Final Appraisal Conference should be held at the end of the appraisal period (the first week in March for nontenured staff; by the third week in May for tenured staff). It is the concluding activity in the appraisal process. The form provided in the Attachment, Part E, should be used to provide a summary of the conference. The highlight of the conference should be the joint discussion of the year's activities, the implications for future goal setting, and continued self-growth. The summarizing write-up should be done during the conference or immediately afterward. The summary should be a clear reflection of the discussion during the conference and be shared with the staff member for his or her signature and optional comments.

ATTACHMENT

Part A.
Criteria for Teacher Effectiveness

The basic criteria to be used in setting goals during the initial supervisor-teacher conference is based on current teacher effectiveness research (teacher behaviors related to student achievement). The concepts presented below represent a summary of current research (1981) and should be used as guidelines whenever possible. These statements are presented as a framework for looking at classroom practices and are not presented as a checklist of required practices. In those instances where the person being evaluated is not involved in the direct instruction of students, it is assumed that other direct job-related criteria would be more appropriate.

A. Classroom Climate
1. Positive motivation is evidenced.
2. A focus on student behavior rather than personality is reflected.
3. Classrooms are characterized by an environment in which all the students feel free to be a part of the class.
4. There is a high degree of appropriate academic praise for all students.
5. Concern for increasing the percentage of correct answers given by students in class and on assignments while at the same time holding expectations realistically high is apparent.

C. The teacher demonstrates active involvement and visible leadership.
7. The teacher gives the impression of enjoying working with students and reflects respect for them as individuals.

B. Planning
1. All pupil contact time is planned.
2. Teaching unit plans generally include the following:
   a. Clearly identified long-range goals and short-term objectives.
   b. Materials and methods to be used, showing a variety of ways to illustrate information.
   c. Special supplementary resources when appropriate (such as a library, field trips, resource people).
   d. Provisions for students to have guided and/or independent practice.
   e. Methods to be used in checking for student understanding, getting sufficient feedback.
3. Daily written lesson plans are detailed enough for teachers' and/or substitutes' use.
4. Objectives of instructional plans relate directly to the objectives of the District's adopted curriculum, using adopted program materials (manuals, course descriptions, student texts, recommended supplementary materials).
5. Instructional plan demonstrates an understanding of the content and an awareness of the variety of ways in which skills can be learned.
6. Pupils' subject matter strengths and weaknesses and academic, social, emotional and physical needs are identified and planning takes these into account.

C. The Teaching Act
1. Explanations, demonstrations, practice and feedback are presented so that the students can comprehend and retain what is being taught. Includes the following steps:
   a. Establishing mental set at the onset of the lesson, e.g., providing students cues that arouse interest.
   b. Teacher clearly stating to the students the objectives of the lesson.
   c. Teacher presenting information to be learned.
   d. Teacher or students illustrating what is to be learned.
   e. Checking for student understanding.
   f. Providing students with guided practice.
   g. Providing students with independent practice.
2. Varied groupings, methods and materials used are based on the needs of the students and objectives of the lesson.
3. Emphasis is placed on providing high percentages of academic engaged time.
4. Recognition is given to the importance of the appropriate use of a direct instruction teaching model: Keeping students on task; direct supervision skills; quality of seat work.
5. All non-direct teaching activities are monitored for their usefulness and appropriateness (i.e., seat work assignments, homework, tests and quizzes, use of interest center, independent study, activities, individualized instruction activities).

D. Management Skills
1. Teacher planning maximizes student on-task time.

2. Limits of student behavior are clearly defined, communicated to students and consistently monitored.
3. Teacher monitors rest of class while working with small groups and individuals.
4. Teacher organizes and arranges classroom so as to facilitate learning and to minimize student disruption.
5. Transitions from one area of teaching to another are made smooth, and demonstrate pre-planning.
6. All students are treated in a fair and consistent manner, taking individual needs into account.

Supplement to Criterion for Teacher Effectiveness

The following definitions and examples are intended to clarify terms and indicate the intent of concepts. Examples should not be considered the limits of the expectations. No attempt is made to provide a rationale for the criterion. The numbers and letters are keyed to the above "Criteria for Teacher Effectiveness."

A.1. "Positive motivation":
- -Provides opportunities for right answers.
- -Responds to wrong answers with supporting techniques, such as clarifying question.
- -Chooses and phrases questions that facilitate correct answers.

A.2. "Focus on behavior":
- -Encourages students to volunteer answers.
- -Uses students' responses and ideas.

A.3. "Environment in which students feel free":
- -Uses varied questions so that all students have a chance to be successful in their responses even though some questions may well be beyond some students.

A.4. "Appropriate academic praise":
- -Plans situations so that all students have the opportunity to earn praise for academic effort and accomplishment.
- -Plans assignments to promote a high degree of success yet maintain a moderate challenge.
- -Emphasizes what is correct about students' work rather than only noting errors.

A.5. "Percentage of correct answers":
- -In daily work and class participation, average and below average students have at least 80 percent correct answers; more able students at least 70 percent correct.
- -Wrong answers are probed to success, especially with average and below average students.

A.6. "Active involvement and visible leadership":
- -Responsive and involved verbally and nonverbally.
- -Regardless of activity, is involved—explaining, leading, or participating in discussions, observing individuals' work, interacting with individuals or small groups.
- -Is not grading papers, reading, planning for another class, talking to other than a class member in the classroom or hall.
- -Recognizes and reinforces appropriate behavior and clearly sets the tone for the class.

B.1. "Contact time":
-The period during which the teacher is responsible for the instruction of pupils.

B.2. "Teaching unit plans":
-Plans for a major topic or section of student work extending over several days or weeks; usually relatively short at lower elementary to extended at the secondary level.

B.6. "Planning takes these needs into account":
-Formal or informal pretesting used to assess pupils' competence.
-Uses supportive personnel for identification, diagnosis, planning, and identification as appropriate.

C.1. These seven elements of a lesson may not all occur in a given period, but the sequence is generally applicable when dealing with a new or extended skill or concept. Omission of a step should be conscious for an educationally sound purpose.

a. "Mental set":
-Focusing attention on the concept or skill to be studied; in this sense, more than just getting the attention of the class.

c. "Presenting information":
-Teacher or student explanation or demonstration.
-Assigned readings.
-Audiovisual material.
-Resource persons.

e. "Checking for student understanding":
-Questions asked of a sampling of the class.
-Sample exercises on the chalkboard or overhead projector are done by students.
-Typically, "Any questions?" or "Do you understand?" are *not* sufficient.

f. "Guided practice":
-A few examples are done independently by students in class with the teacher checking each to ensure individual understanding; explaining and clarifying when necessary before assigning independent practice.

g. "Independent practice":
-Application of skills or concepts by individuals after teacher has ensured their understanding through guided practice; may be long- or short-term, in school or homework.

C.3. "Academic engaged time":
-Time when pupil is actively involved in academically appropriate activity; listening may or may not be academic engaged time.

C.4. "Student on-task time":
-Time when the student is directly involved in academic work related to the lesson or other specified objective; similar to academic engaged time, but could include nonacademic activities; student works on what he or she should be working on.

Part B.
Goal Setting

Both the supervisor and the staff member have a responsibility to make the goal-setting conference as productive as possible. The supervisor, while maintain-

ing ultimate responsibility for the final product, must actively involve the staff member in the conference. In most instances, the final goals should be the outgrowth of a cooperative activity. (In working with nontenured staff, the supervisor will normally assume a more directive role in goal setting. With tenured staff, the supervisor's major functions would tend to be as a clarifier and facilitator. When agreement cannot be reached, the supervisor maintains final responsibility.) The staff member is responsible for coming to the conference prepared to openly and positively discuss areas that are of particular concern or interest. Both parties share the responsibility of approaching the conference and the entire activity with a positive attitude and a willingness to participate fully.

Number of Goals

The number of goals established between the staff member and the supervisor is less important than the form and substance of the goals. In most cases, the number would range between one and four, with the number being determined by the relevancy and the time and energy required.

Goal Priorities

Under normal conditions, it is recommended that goals be established in accordance with their potential impact on student learning. The following priorities should be used as guidelines in determining the appropriateness of goals. However, there are instances when any one of the four types may be relevant and necessary depending on unique conditions.

1. *Teaching Goals*—goals built around teacher behaviors or worker behaviors that are directly related to student outcomes. The outline of the teacher effectiveness research in the Appendix-Part A should serve as the basis for setting teaching goals for the regular classroom teachers. Other instructional support personnel should consider direct job-related activities as falling under this heading.

2. *Learner Goals*—goals that relate directly to solving a specific learning activity or improving some particular student deficit.

3. *Program Goals*—goals that relate to curriculum areas, course outlines, articulation activities, materials selection, etc. It is assumed here that there are numerous ways for staff to get involved in programmatic efforts other than using the supervision system.

4. *Organizational or Administrative Goals*—goals that deal with specific administrative criteria such as listed in the minimum standards description. It is assumed that only in the case of continuing problems in this area would the goal setting procedure be used to help improve the situation.

Measurability of Goals

Part C in the Appendix lists the preferred options for measuring progress towards meeting the goal(s). The key to this activity during the conference is a cooperative effort between the supervisor and the staff member in arriving at a method that fits each goal. Certain goals may be so unique that they force the supervisor and staff person to creatively design a method for assessing progress. This is perfectly acceptable. It is to be remembered that subjective judgments made by the supervisor and the staff person after the method(s) have been applied are clearly acceptable forms of measurement. This allows us not to have to confine our goals to only those things that are measurable by traditional, empirical standards.

Part C.
Techniques for Determining Teacher Effectiveness

Several techniques can be employed to formatively collect data about classroom instruction.

Formal Observation

Observing the teacher in the classroom is a basic and important way of determining teacher effectiveness. Formal observation will be made throughout the school year with either the teacher or supervisor initiating the formal observation process. To increase the reliability of the information gained through the formal observation, the following procedures will be required of all formal observations.

1. A pre-observation conference is required for each formal classroom observation to help the teacher and supervisor determine the primary focus of the observation. In the pre-observation conference the following information is to be discussed.
   a. Specific area of Teacher Effectiveness Criteria that will receive primary emphasis during the observation.
   b. Student outcomes to be achieved by the lessons.
   c. Methods teachers will use to help the students achieve the lesson objective.
   d. Behavior students will display that will indicate their successful achievement of the lesson objective.
2. The pre-observation conference may be held at any time prior to the observation. The formal observation form is to be used to record information collected during the formal observation process.
3. A description of the observation will be given to the teacher within a reasonable time prior to the post-conference.
4. A post-observation conference will be held following each classroom observation with such conferences being conducted within a reasonable time following the observation—usually not more than two school days. Information determined in the observation and pre-observation conference will form the basis of discussion in the post-conference.

Artifact Collection

An important appraisal alternative to the formal observation process is artifact collection. Artifacts would include such things as lesson plans, unit planning materials, tests, quizzes, study guides, worksheets, homework assignments and other materials that affect or relate to instruction. The Teacher Effectiveness Criteria will serve as a basis for determining the quality and appropriateness of classroom artifacts. A conference may be scheduled for the purpose of mutually appraising instructional artifacts with requested data being presented to the supervisor at least one day prior to an arranged conference. All artifacts reviewed in the conference will be returned except those that have been mutually determined to be used for the preparation of the final appraisal report.

Student Evaluation

Great insight can be gained related to instructional effectiveness and effective classroom procedures by asking students for their reactions and perceptions to questions aimed at producing descriptive information about the classroom and the

instruction in that classroom. The purpose of any such appraisal is to obtain descriptive data about instruction and not to rate the teacher. Such information will be mutually reviewed by the teacher and the supervisor to determine the level of instructional effectiveness in the classroom. Any written information, forms or notes used or made in employing this technique as a data source shall be shared solely between the teacher and the supervisor. The results of this appraisal technique would not be included as part of the teacher's Annual Appraisal Report unless both the teacher and the supervisor mutually agree to do so. (Various student evaluation instruments will be made available through the Office of the Assistant Superintendent.)

Part D.

Staff member _____ Supervisor _____
School _____ Date _____

PRE-APPRAISAL CONFERENCE

A. Establishment and Monitoring of Performance Goals (attach additional material as needed).

Performance Goals for Appraisal Period	Means for Measuring the Degree to Which the Goal was Reached

B. Additional Comments Relevant to the Conference

Part E.

FINAL APPRAISAL REPORT

Staff member _____ Supervisor _____
School _____ Date _____

A. *A Summary of the Appraisal Process*

B. *General Follow-up Recommendations*

C. *Remarks by the Staff Member (optional)*

Signatures indicate completion of the process, but not necessarily agreement.
Teacher _____ Date _____
Supervisor _____ Date _____

Also of interest . . .

For further exploration of teacher evaluation, readers may find the following ASCD media useful:

PUBLICATIONS

Effective Schools and Classrooms: A Research-Based Perspective. David A. Squires, William G. Huitt, and John K. Segars. Includes a questionnaire to assess the effectiveness of your own school. 1983. 142 pp. $7.50.

Staff Development/Organization Development. Betty Dillon-Peterson, ed. Discusses characteristics of the adult learner, a five-stage model for inservice, and the evaluation process. 1981 Yearbook. 149 pp. $9.75.

AUDIOTAPE CASSETTES

Accountability Teacher Evaluation Model. Michael Patton. Analyzes who is accountable to whom for what, the need to identify the purpose of the model and specify how information will be used. 1980. 82 min. Stock no. 612-20220. $9.00.

Educational Connoisseurship and Educational Criticism: A New Evaluation Approach. Elliot Eisner. Suggests new ways to evaluate teaching and learning. 1978. 55 min. $6.50.

Stimulating Professional Growth Through Systematic Personnel Appraisal. Don Holste and Richard J. Bodine. Describes the Urbana, Illinois, program for integrating personnel evaluation with staff development. 1979. $6.50.

Alternative Models for Use in Designing Local Teacher Evaluation Systems. Thomas McGreal. Clarifies the purpose of teacher evaluation and proposes alternatives to common law evaluation models. 1980. 92 min. $9.00.

VIDEOTAPES/FILMS

Evaluating Teacher Performance: Part I. The Process. Richard Manatt. Describes a legal way to assess teacher performance using generic instruments and performance analysis. Includes evaluation of four real teaching episodes. Format: ¾" cassette, ½" reel, ½" Beta, or ½" VHS. Purchase price: $195, ASCD members; $230, nonmembers. Rental (5 days): $50. Unscheduled preview (2 days): $30.

Evaluating Teacher Performance: Part II. Teaching Episodes. Richard Manatt. Presents three more teaching episodes plus longer versions of two segments in Part I. Format: ¾" cassette, ½" reel, ½" Beta, or ½" VHS. Purchase price: $195, ASCD members; $230, nonmembers. Rental (5 days): $50. Unscheduled preview (2 days): $30.

Supervising the Marginal Teacher. Richard Manatt. Describes the use of intensive assistance, progressive discipline, and teacher dismissal. Packaged with comprehensive leader's guide and instructional materials booklet. Format: ¾" cassette, ½" reel, ½" Beta, or ½" VHS. Purchase price $225, ASCD members; $260, nonmembers. Rental (5 days): $50. Unscheduled preview (2 days): $30.

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		Educational Connoisseurship and Educational Criticism (612-20183)
		Stimulating Professional Growth Through Systematic Personnel Appraisal (612-20202)
		Alternative Models for Use in Designing Local Teacher Evaluation Systems (612-20218)
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		Evaluating Teacher Performance: Part II. Teaching Episodes *Circle one: ¾" cassette ½" reel* *½" Beta ½" VHS*
		Supervising the Marginal Teacher *Circle one: ¾" cassette ½" reel* *½" Beta ½" VHS*

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